

MANUAL

OF THE

Northern India Salt Revenue Department.

VOLUME III.



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RULES SANCTIONED BY THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN THE LETTER FROM THE FINANCE DEPARTMENT, No 4283 SR, DATED 30TH AUGUST 1900, TO REGULATE FIRST APPOINTMENTS TO THE SUPERIOR EXECUTIVE GRADES OF THE DEPARTMENT

Rules for admission to the superior executive grades of the Northern India Salt Department

I—APPOINTMENTS to the superior executive grades of the Northern India Salt Department will be made—(a) by competitive examination, and (b) partly also by promotion of subordinates of proved merit serving in the Department

II—Excluding the Commissioner's appointment, the *cadre* of the Department comprises 44 sanctioned appointments and may, from time to time, include a varying number of junior officers, recruited under the following scheme of recruitment, in temporary excess of the sanctioned scale

III—The Department will in future ordinarily be recruited at a ratio of 3·8 per cent per annum on the sanctioned strength, or, in other words, the number of appointments made will for the present be one and two in alternate years. The number of appointments offered to competitive examination will usually be one a year. The second vacancy in each alternate year will be available for allotment to a deserving subordinate of proved merit. If no qualified subordinate be forthcoming, the second vacancy may also be thrown open to competitive examination. A candidate who has successfully passed the competitive examination will be appointed a Probationary Assistant Superintendent on Rs 100 a month

Proviso—This scheme is, however subject to the condition that the sanctioned scale shall not be much exceeded and that if the number of supernumerary officers shows any tendency to undue increase, the rate of recruitment shall be temporarily diminished

IV—The qualifications necessary for the acceptance of candidates for competitive examination are the following —

- (a) A candidate must not be under 18 or over 25 years of age on the birthday preceding the examination at which he wishes to compete
- (b) He must furnish the certificate of physical fitness prescribed by Article 61 of the Civil Service Regulations and such further evidence on the subject as the Commissioner may think necessary, having regard to the work required from officers of the Salt Department and the conditions of climate under which they must serve

(c) He must satisfy the Commissioner—

(1) that he is of good moral character,

(2) that he is of active habits and specially that he is able to ride, he must show that he is able to make journeys on horseback

V.—A candidate who possesses the above qualifications may be permitted by the Commissioner to present himself for examination; but this permission is a matter entirely within the discretion of the Commissioner, and no appeal lies from his decision.

VI.—Not less than three candidates will be nominated for each expected vacancy. Ordinarily not more than five will be nominated. If at any time the number of accepted candidates exceeds this, fresh nominations will not ordinarily be made till an approximation to the above proportion is effected.

VII.—The examination of nominated candidates will be held in the following subjects:—

SUBJECTS.

Compulsory.

						Marks.
(1)	English Composition.	In allotting marks clear and legible handwriting will be con-				
	sidered	200
(2)	Arithmetic	150
(3)	English History and Literature (Elementary)	150
(4)	Indian History from beginning of 17th Century and Indian Geography	150
(5)	Elementary Inorganic Chemistry	100

Optional.

*One subject out of each of the following groups:—

(6)	{	Euclid (Books I to IV)	} 100
		Plane Trigonometry (Elementary)	
		Algebra up to and including Quadratic Equations	
(7)	{	French	} 100
		German	
		Latin	
TOTAL									950

VIII.—No candidate who fails to obtain 400 marks in all shall be appointed, whatever his place in the examination.

IX.—The Commissioner may, at his discretion, prescribe text books in any of the subjects enumerated in Rule VII.

X.—†A Probationary Assistant Superintendent may be appointed to officiate as Assistant Superintendent or to be sub *pro tem.* Assistant Superintendent, but shall not be confirmed in the appointment of Assistant Superintendent until—

(a) his service has been approved during a period of not less than one year's probation ;

(b) he has passed in full the Departmental examination prescribed by the standing orders of the Department.

* A candidate *may* take up one subject in either or in *both* of the optional groups ; but he *need* not take up any subject mentioned in the "Optional" list.

† A probationary Assistant, officiating as Assistant Superintendent, will continue to draw 100, but, if appointed sub *pro tem.*, he may draw the full pay of the appointment.

A Probationary Assistant Superintendent whose services are not approved, or who fails to pass the Departmental examination within one year from the date of his appointment as Probationary Assistant Superintendent, will be liable to removal from his appointment

XI—A subordinate who has been selected for promotion to the appointment of Assistant Superintendent will be required to undergo the Departmental examination prescribed by the standing orders of the Department within one year from the date of his appointment as Assistant Superintendent, officiating or sub *pro tem*. A promoted subordinate who fails to pass the Departmental examination within the prescribed time, or whose services are not approved, will revert to his substantive appointment

XII—The place in the gradation list of an Assistant Superintendent, whether appointed by competitive examination or otherwise, will be regulated by the date of his first appointment to officiate continuously as Assistant Superintendent or to be sub *pro tem* Assistant Superintendent. In the case of successful examination candidates appointed to be Probationary Assistant Superintendents at the same time, the one who passed higher in the competitive examination will be the senior

ORDERS OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ON THE SUBJECT OF THE RECRUITMENT OF THE DEPARTMENT

Letter No 3432-Ex, dated 10th July 1900, from W S Meyer, Esq, Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, Agra

I am directed to refer to paragraph 6 of my letter of 22nd March 1900 No 1437-E, on the subject of your proposals for the partial reorganization of the Northern India Salt Department

2 That paragraph discussed your suggestion that a candidate who has passed the competitive examination for the Department might at once be appointed a Probationary Assistant Superintendent on Rs 100 a month, until such time as it might be possible to absorb him in a substantive or officiating vacancy within the sanctioned *cadre*, on the ground that it was difficult to calculate in advance the exact number of vacancies likely to occur. The Government of India negatived the suggestion on the ground that it had not been found necessary in the Opium Department, where successful candidates had to wait until they could officiate in a sanctioned appointment

The situation has, however, since changed by the issue of revised rules for the recruitment of the Opium Department. Under these the Department is recruited at a ratio of 3.5 per cent *per annum* on sanctioned strength and examination candidates recruited under this scale may be entertained as probationers on Rs 140 a month, even though there be no immediate vacancy in the sanctioned *cadre*. On permanent absorption in the *cadre* they obtain an initial pay of Rs 200.

3. The Government of India are now pleased to rule that the same principle shall be applied to the executive ranks of the Northern India Salt Department. The sanctioned strength of the Department in these ranks is now 44, and 3·8 per cent of this will give an average recruitment of about 1·6 per annum, or one and two men in alternate years. The normal rate of recruitment by examination will hereafter be one man a year, the second vacancy every other year being allotted to a deserving subordinate if one is forthcoming. If no such man be available the vacancy which would otherwise have been filled by promotion may also be thrown open to examination.

4. Subject to recruitment being hereafter conducted on these lines, the Government of India sanctioned the appointment as a Probationary Assistant Superintendent on Rs. 100 of any successful examination candidate for whom no vacancy in the sanctioned establishment has yet arisen. The sanction is, however, subject to the same condition as has been applied in the Opium Department, *viz.*, that the sanctioned scale shall not be much exceeded, and that if the number of supernumerary probationers shows any tendency to undue increase, the rate of recruitment shall be temporarily diminished.

5. It must be understood, however, that no further recruitment can take place until the holders of the five appointments whose abolition was approved in paragraph 5 of my letter of 22nd March 1900, No. 1437-E., have been absorbed in the present sanctioned scale.

NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE DEPARTMENT

In connection with the Notification of the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department, No 4284-S R, dated 30th August 1900, publishing revised rules for admission to the superior executive grades of the Northern India Salt Department, a list of the appointments in the Department of and above the rank of Inspector, with the pay and local allowances attached and a detail of the privileges enjoyed by officers in the matter of house rent and free quarters, is published for general information.

Commissioner.

					Rs
1 Commissioner	2500 a month

The appointment of Commissioner is reserved for a member of the Indian Civil Service

Deputy Commissioner.

				Rs
1 Deputy Commissioner	1,000—50—1,200 a month

Assistant Commissioners

				Rs
1 Assistant Commissioner	1,000 a month
6 Assistant Commissioners	500—30—800 a month.

 7

The Assistant Commissioner of the Kohat Mines Division also receives a local allowance of Rs. 100 a month

Superintendents.

					Rs
6 Superintendents, 1st grade, at	400 a month
7 " 2nd " " "	350 "
8 " 3rd " " "	300 "
8 " 4th " " "	250* "
29					

The Superintendents at Jatta and Babadur Khel in the Kohat Mines Division receive a local allowance of Rs 100 a month each. The Superintendent in charge of the Mayo Mine in the cis-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division also receives a local allowance of Rs. 100 a month, and the Superintendent in charge of the Warcha Mine in the same Division a local allowance of Rs 50 a month. The Superintendent acting as Personal Assistant to the Commissioner receives a local allowance of Rs 50 a month

Assistant Superintendents

				Rs.
4 Assistant Superintendents, 1st grade, at	175 a month
3 " " 2nd " " "	150 "

 7

Probationary Assistant Superintendents receive a salary of Rs. 100 a month.

The Assistant Superintendent at Malgin in the Kohat Mines Division receives a local allowance of Rs. 50 a month. An Assistant Superintendent when placed in charge of Jatta, Bahadur Khel, or Karak in the Kohat Mines Division, or of Warcha in the cis-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division, receives a local allowance of Rs. 50 a month.

The Deputy Commissioner and Assistant Commissioners are appointed by the Government of India. Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents and Inspectors are appointed by the Commissioner.

Inspectors.

								Rs.
10	Inspectors,	1st	grade,	at	100 a month.
15	"	2nd	"	"	"	80 "
25	"	3rd	"	"	60 "
25	"	4th	"	"	50 "
16	"	5th	"	"	40 "
—								
91								
—								

Inspectors when in charge of the Kushak, Khewrah, Makrach, Katta, Malot and Sardi Beats in the Salt Range, the Karrak quarries and Depôt in the Kohat Mines Division, and the Luni salt tract in Rajputana, and Inspectors posted at the two salt quarries at Guma and Drang in the Mandi State, receive charge allowances of Rs. 50 a month each. The Inspectors in charge of the Zahidpur and Sadrana salt works in the Rohtak and Gurgaon districts of the Punjab, and the Inspector in charge of the Nari Beat in Kohat, receive charge allowances of Rs. 30 a month each. The Inspector in charge of the Ajmer district in Rajputana, and the three Inspectors employed in the supervision of saltpetre factories in the Punjab receive charge allowances of Rs. 20 a month.

House rent and free quarters.

All officers of the Department employed at the salt mines in the Punjab, and North West Frontier Province at the Sultanpur Salt Works in the Punjab, and at the Rajputana Salt Sources, are provided with rent free quarters.

Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents employed in the Internal Branch in the North Western Provinces, Oudh, Bengal, the Punjab and the North West Frontier Province are allowed house rent at Rs. 30 and Rs. 20 a month respectively, from the 16th June to 30th September, subject to a deduction of Re. 1 for any day on which they draw travelling allowance.

SIMLA, }
1st August 1901.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner,
Northern India Salt Revenue.

ORDERS OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA REGARDING THE GAZETTING OF APPOINTMENTS IN THE DEPARTMENT

Letter No 5524-Ex, dated 25th November 1896, from the Officiating Under Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue

I am directed to refer to your letters noted in the margin, regarding the gazetting of certain appointments in the Northern India Salt Revenue Department. In the letter of the 7th August, you recommend that Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of the Department should be gazetted in Part II of the *Gazette of India* under your signature. In the letter of the 30th September you request sanction to the gazetting of Assistant Commissioners of the Department in Part I of the *Gazette of India* instead of in Part II as at present.

2 In reply I am to convey the sanction of the Government of India to both these proposals. I am also to enquire how you wish the change as regards Assistant Commissioners to be brought into operation—that is whether you desire merely to gazette future changes or to gazette in Part I the existing staff. If the latter is the intention, you should forward a list of names, dates of last posting to present appointments &c, to be inserted in the notification. I am further to add that the view taken in the last paragraph of your letter of the 7th August with regard to the effect of gazetting Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents in Part II of the *Gazette* under your signature is correct.

Extract from paragraph 5 of the letter from the Commissioner, to the Government of India in the Finance Department, No 1716, dated 7th August 1895

Should the present application be sanctioned, Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents would also be gazetted in Part II of the *Gazette of India* under my orders. But they would not, I think, be “gazetted officers” within the meaning of the Civil Service Regulations. They would be in the same position in this respect as certain officers mentioned in the last two sentences of paragraph 2 of the resolution, viz, Tahsildars in the North Western Provinces and Oudh and in the Punjab, and Sub-Deputy Collectors and Tahsildars in the Central Provinces and Bengal.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

I.—Statement showing the receipts and expenditure, and the net revenue of the Northern India Salt Revenue Department from 1860-61 to 1900-01.

II.—Statement showing the annual average retail prices of salt in the principal markets of the Punjab, North Western Provinces and Oudh, Behar and Rajputana as recorded by the Statistical Bureau. The quotations apply to the description of salt chiefly consumed by the mass of the people of the district and represent the average for the calendar year of the retail prices at the district head quarters on the last day of each half month.

III.—Statement showing stocks and quantities of salt manufactured, and the cost of manufacture and storage, at the Sambhar Lake from 1870-71 to 1900-01.

IV.—Statement showing the quantities of salt sold and the prices realised at the Sambhar Lake from 1870-71 to 1900-01.

V.—Statement showing stocks of salt, quantities manufactured with the cost of manufacture and storage, and sales with prices realised at the Didwana Salt Source from 1878-79 to 1900-01.

VI.—Statement showing stocks of salt, quantities manufactured and rates paid to manufacturers, and sales with prices realised at the Pachbadra Salt Source from 1878-79 to 1900-01.

VII.—Statement showing stocks and excavation of salt, and rates paid to miners, in the *cis*-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division from 1869-70 to 1900-01.

VIII.—Statement showing quantities of salt sold and prices realised in the *cis*-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division from 1869-70 to 1900-01.

Statement showing the receipts and expenditure, and the net revenue of the Northern India Salt Revenue Department from 1860-61 to 1900-01

Year	Gross revenue realised	EXPENDITURE			Net revenue	REMARKS
		Establishment charges	Contingent charges	Total charges		
	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Duty on sugar included in receipts
1860-61	88 38 914			8 31 131	77 54 723	4 58 537
1861-62	1 0 60 178			10 41 107	97 3 979	12 63 6
1862-63	63 19 6			9 61 3	63 13 50	14 07 499
1863-64	93 3 124			11 93 07	61 50 41	13 23 165
1864-65	9 41 042	Data is not available	Data is not available	12 35 0	60 08 6 0	13 48 21
1865-66	1 13 31 89			14 06 430	90 70 358	15 08 03
1866-67	1 28 01 18			14 34 300	1 13 67 876	14 17 508
1867-68	1 21 67 857			14 69 61	1 08 08 096	The duties on sugar were abolished from 1st April 1878. The rates were for refined sugar one rupee and for unrefined sugar as a Bri sh mound
1868-69	1 17 70 770			16 69 784	1 01 50 931	11 51 833
1869-70 (a)	1 63 32 59	10 46 96	2 07 303	21 53 899	1 16 78 63	1 48 492
1870-71 (b)	1 67 78 009	17 71 61	6 51 37	23 6 038	1 39 51 9 0	14 10 0
1871-72	1 62 09 874	17 08 0 5	9 69 749	27 67 3	1 31 42 101	15 9 600
1872-73	1 70 20 551	1 90 481	10 5 816	28 9 97	1 41 48 984	14 17 513
1873-74	1 69 71 691	17 86 00	8 93 1 9	26 79 679	1 4 01 002	15 70 468
1874-75	1 61 66 5 3	16 03 008	10 63 5 7	26 67 115	1 35 09 408	13 81 719
1875-76	1 66 67 4 3	15 53 25	10 38 274	26 91 483	1 40 60 945	1 03 719
1876-77	1 69 82 674	14 07 435	10 24 067	26 31 502	1 44 61 373	16 33 863
1877-78	1 68 67 44	14 31 761	13 77 067	28 08 8 9	1 33 59 014	13 17 044
1878-79 (c)	1 54 35 016	11 76 617	4 46 48	16 23 108	1 32 17 007	(a) The Department assumed charge of the K. Indus and Katabaah. The new Pu jab and of the Sam bhar See on of the Sam bhar Lake in Rajputana
1879-80	1 71 53 03	7 26 869	7 89 538	15 16 434	1 58 39 249	(b) The Department assumed charge of the K. Indus and the Set on of the Sam bhar Lake in Raj putana
1880-81	1 61 01 640	8 25 917	4 13 416	12 39 333	1 41 6 477	(c) The Island Coast was Line from Le sh to Khudwa was abolished and the Department assumed charge of the same unit sources in Rajputana
1881-82	1 89 48 130	8 31 893	12 65 410	20 97 313	1 68 69 787	(d) The Indus Prevent Ve L no was abolished
1882-83	1 65 99 07	8 34 574	10 80 142	19 14 716	1 36 77 3 6	(e) The Department formally assumed charge of the Kohat nes dur g th s year but the figures of receipts and charges are included from 1863-0
1883-84	1 73 4 906	8 19 100	8 12 633	16 30 828	1 37 13 169	
1884-85	1 69 42 781	8 13 770	6 40 261	14 53 531	1 44 89 250	
1885-86	1 69 73 735	7 46 494	4 6 170	12 52 654	96 51 081	
1886-87	1 57 19 744	7 05 369	7 80 113	14 85 472	1 47 31 722	
1887-88	1 54 24 830	6 70 09	5 10 210	11 80 949	1 42 37 881	
1888-89	1 60 2 95	6 55 33	6 54 490	13 09 712	1 73 13 093	
1889-90	1 90 58 635	6 53 617	4 99 127	11 52 744	1 81 05 991	
1890-91	1 93 24 539	6 41 764	5 43 7 0	11 85 199	1 81 39 0 0	
1891-92	1 95 72 604	6 39 000	5 45 601	11 96 251	1 83 86 3 3	
1892-93	2 17 89 530	6 88 387	3 96 748	10 85 133	2 02 64 307	
1893-94	1 9 91 384	6 31 737	5 07 708	11 39 463	1 67 1 071	
1894-95	1 93 77 680	6 11 965	6 41 893	12 58 8 8	1 61 0 512	
1895-96	1 86 13 007	6 26 787	5 83 632	12 10 419	1 74 07 588	
1896-97	1 87 61 000	6 19 6 7	6 0 974	11 80 601	1 75 70 459	
1897-98 (d)	1 95 8 373	6 06 168	4 6 879	10 83 067	1 84 99 306	
1898-99 (e)	2 04 6 33	5 90 504	5 07 260	11 07 131	1 93 55 201	
1899-1900	1 97 81 589	5 84 1 0	4 48 08	10 32 558	1 87 57 331	
1900-01	2 07 35 63	5 43 963	4 61 607	10 05 7 6	1 97 26 916	

Rates of Excise duty on salt per Brish mound at Rs 8-0
 From beginning of 1860 to Mar h 1861
 Mar h 1861 to December 1877
 January to July 1878
 July 1878 to 9th Mar h 1880
 10th Mar h 1880 to 18th January 1899
 19th January 1899

Rates of Kohat duty per mound of 10 lbs
 Prior to 1st July 1863
 From 1st July 1863 to 17th July 1896
 From 18th July 1896

Rates of British shore of Mand du y per Brish mound
 From 18 0-71 to 18 9 60
 1899-01 to 1893 54 6 annas 8 pies
 1891-01 to 27th January
 28th Jan

NOTE.—Treaty payments are not included in the figures of expenditure

Statement showing the annual average retail prices of salt in the principal markets of the tical Bureau. The quotations apply to the description of salt chiefly consumed by the retail prices at the district head quarters on the last day of each half month.

Year.	PUNJAB.					NORTH WEST	
	Rawalpindi.	Lahore.	Amballa.	Mooltan.	Delhi.	Agra.	Cawnpur.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
1861 ...	2 12 2	3 7 1	4 1 4	3 3 3	5 8 5	5 5 4	5 11 11
1862 ...	3 10 7	3 15 8	4 9 3	3 11 6	5 7 6	5 5 4	6 3 6
1863 ...	3 11 11	4 0 10	4 13 1	3 14 1	6 3 6	5 15 6	6 7 10
1864 ...	3 14 1	4 1 8	4 10 10	4 2 1	6 2 7	6 12 8	8 4 9
1865 ...	3 12 3	4 0 10	4 15 5	3 13 0	5 11 5	6 3 6	7 7 5
1866 ...	4 1 8	4 1 4	4 10 10	3 13 4	5 8 5	5 15 6	6 12 8
1867 ...	3 14 10	4 2 2	4 13 1	3 11 3	5 5 5	5 5 4	6 3 6
1868 ...	3 13 9	4 1 4	5 0 8	3 11 6	5 7 6	5 11 11	5 15 6
1869 ...	3 13 9	4 3 10	4 11 11	3 13 0	6 4 8	6 3 6	6 7 10
1870 ...	3 12 3	4 2 2	4 11 4	3 13 6	5 10 8	5 2 4	6 3 6
1871 ...	3 15 7	4 2 0	5 0 0	4 3 4	4 10 1
1872 ...	3 14 3	4 3 4	4 11 7	4 1 1	5 0 0	4 9 8	4 10 8
1873 ...	3 14 4	4 1 7	4 10 5	3 10 8	5 6 6	4 11 8	4 7 7
1874 ...	3 12 7	4 1 2	4 8 5	3 11 3	5 2 7	4 9 5	4 4 4
1875 ...	3 13 0	4 0 2	4 6 9	3 8 10	4 12 7	4 1 4	4 4 2
1876 ...	3 11 10	3 15 10	4 6 3	3 11 3	4 8 3	4 5 1	4 5 2
1877 ...	3 13 1	3 15 8	4 3 8	3 11 4	4 6 2	4 5 9	4 7 2
1878 ...	3 11 6	3 15 3	4 2 5	3 9 7	3 12 0	4 0 10	4 8 3
1879 ...	3 13 2	3 11 11	3 13 3	3 4 3	3 10 3	3 9 7	3 13 10
1880 ...	3 13 3	3 10 5	3 11 10	3 3 7	3 8 11	3 10 0	3 9 3
1881 ...	3 7 5	3 11 0	3 8 7	3 3 8	3 7 0	3 10 0	3 5 3
1882 ...	2 14 0	3 1 0	3 0 10	2 13 7	3 0 10	3 4 11	3 2 9
1883 ...	2 10 9	2 13 10	2 14 4	2 11 8	2 14 8	3 1 7	3 1 6
1884 ...	2 10 2	2 13 9	2 14 9	2 12 1	3 6 1	3 0 1	3 0 0
1885 ...	2 9 3	2 13 7	2 14 10	2 11 5	3 6 3	2 15 4	3 0 0
1886 ...	2 9 9	2 13 9	2 14 2	2 11 4	3 5 7	3 0 1	2 15 4
1887 ...	2 8 10	2 13 9	2 12 8	2 12 1	3 4 3	3 0 0	2 13 7
1888 ...	2 15 7	3 4 11	3 2 7	3 3 7	3 9 1	3 5 5	3 4 2
1889 ...	2 15 8	3 5 4	3 3 2	3 3 9	3 10 2	3 6 8	3 5 4
1890 ...	2 15 6	3 5 4	3 2 5	3 0 11	3 10 2	3 7 8	3 6 4
1891 ...	2 15 8	3 5 4	3 2 4	3 3 4	3 10 2	3 7 1	3 5 4
1892 ...	3 0 5	3 7 1	3 2 10	3 4 0	3 10 5	3 7 0	3 5 3
1893 ...	3 1 6	3 7 9	3 3 4	3 4 6	3 11 4	3 7 4	3 6 4
1894 ...	2 15 6	3 3 0	3 2 5	3 4 8	3 12 9	3 9 1	3 8 6
1895 ...	2 15 7	3 2 1	3 3 5	3 4 3	3 10 2	3 8 3	3 7 6
1896 ...	2 15 3	3 1 5	3 2 3	3 4 0	3 9 0	3 8 8	3 7 0
1897 ...	2 14 10	3 1 7	3 2 10	3 3 9	3 9 5	3 4 11	3 6 10
1898 ...	2 14 10	3 1 9	3 11 6	3 4 3	3 5 6	3 4 11	3 6 2
1899 ...	3 0 11	3 1 8	3 2 5	3 4 6	3 6 2	3 5 7	3 6 9
1900 ...	2 15 1	3 2 0	3 2 5	3 4 8	3 5 4	3 7 5	3 6 8

RATES OF

March 1861 to December 1877
January 1878 to July 1878
July 1878
August 1878 to March 1882
March 1882 to January 1888
January 1888 to date

Railway

The East Indian Railway was opened from Howrah to Ghaziabad in 1861.
The North Western Railway was opened from Lahore to Delhi in 1870; and was opened
The Rajputana-Malwa Railway was opened from Delhi and Agra to the Sambhar Lake
The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway was opened from Mugal Sarai to Saharanpur in

Punjab North Western Provinces, Oudh, Behar and Rajputana as recorded by the Statisticians of the people of the district and represent the average for the calendar year of the

NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES			OUDH		BEHAR	RAJPUTANA
Allahabad	Moradabad	Gorakhpur	Lucknow	Fyzabad	Patna	Ajmer
Rs A P	Rs A P	Rs A P	Rs A P	Rs A P	Rs A P	Rs A P
7 1 8	4 6 3	6 3 6	7 13 9	5 11 11	4 10 2	
6 12 8	4 15 8	9 5 5	6 12 8	5 11 11	4 3 7	
7 1 8	5 2 4	6 3 6	7 13 9	6 3 6	4 14 7	
7 7 5	5 8 6	6 3 6	7 13 9	6 3 6	4 3 7	
7 7 5	5 8 6	5 15 6	7 1 8	5 15 6	4 1 10	
6 12 8	5 5 4	5 15 6	6 12 8	5 15 6	4 11 4	
7 1 8	5 2 4	5 15 6	6 12 8	5 11 11	4 7 2	
6 7 10	5 5 4	6 3 6	6 7 10	5 11 11	4 3 7	
6 12 8	5 5 4	5 15 6	6 12 8	5 11 11	4 12 4	
6 12 8	5 5 4	5 11 11	7 1 8	5 11 11	4 7 2	
5 3 1			5 8 6	5 8 1	5 0 2	
5 4 8	4 9 11	5 14 7	5 9 9	5 7 9	5 0 5	1 1 1
5 0 8	4 7 4	5 13 0	5 6 5	5 4 4	5 0 4	1 1 11
4 14 10	4 4 8	5 13 6	5 5 1	5 1 1	5 2 11	1 3 8
4 14 7	3 15 1	5 12 1	5 0 0	4 14 4	5 0 0	1 2 1
4 12 4	4 0 2	5 6 11	4 13 6	4 13 10	5 0 0	1 0 7
4 13 4	3 15 7	5 6 10	4 13 5	5 0 2	5 0 0	0 15 10
4 14 2	3 14 1	5 2 6	4 13 11	4 14 5	4 15 10	1 5 7
4 9 10	3 12 9	4 15 10	4 10 11	4 11 11	4 12 3	3 7 1
4 10 11		4 12 8	4 4 4	4 9 0	4 9 3	3 10 2
4 11 8	3 11 6	4 1 5	4 9 4	4 8 2	4 2 9	3 7 3
3 14 1	3 5 4	4 1 8	4 4 3	4 2 10	3 15 8	2 12 1
3 10 2	3 3 4	3 12 6	3 12 8	3 13 9	3 12 6	2 10 5
3 9 9	3 1 9	3 13 0	3 10 4	3 13 0	3 11 8	2 10 3
3 8 6	3 3 0	3 12 11	3 9 7	3 9 10	3 5 3	2 12 11
3 9 2	3 1 8	3 7 8	3 7 6	3 8 9	3 7 8	2 15 2
3 7 3	2 15 2	3 9 5	3 7 10	3 7 6	3 6 6	2 13 2
3 15 1	3 8 6	3 15 1	3 12 6	3 14 11	3 13 3	3 4 10
4 0 2	3 7 3	3 14 0	3 10 9	4 0 0	4 1 3	3 5 4
4 0 2	3 6 3	4 1 1	3 13 1	4 0 10	4 0 6	3 4 10
3 14 7	3 9 3	4 2 1	3 12 1	4 0 0	3 10 4	3 3 7
4 1 3	3 10 1	4 1 4	3 12 7	3 15 1	3 8 6	3 3 9
3 15 4	3 12 4	4 3 0	3 12 0	3 15 1	3 9 1	3 3 7
4 1 2	3 12 6	4 3 11	3 14 3	3 12 11	3 11 0	3 4 1
3 14 11	3 10 4	4 2 10	3 12 0	3 12 11	3 10 2	3 3 10
3 15 9	3 10 2	4 4 8	3 10 4	3 12 11	3 15 2	3 3 2
3 13 8	3 10 2	4 1 3	3 10 2	3 11 0	3 13 11	3 3 2
3 13 5	3 10 2	3 14 11	5 8 11	3 10 2	5 10 11	3 3 2
3 15 1	3 10 7	3 13 6	5 11 0	3 11 9	5 10 2	3 3 2
3 15 9	3 10 2	3 13 5	3 11 6	3 14 11	3 10 2	3 3 2

SALT DUTY

BENGAL

3 4 0

3 2 0

3 2 0

2 14 0

NORTHERN INDIA

3 0 0

2 12 0

2 8 0

2 8 0

A uniform rate of Rs 2 0 0 per maund

A uniform rate of Rs 2 8 0 do

Extensions

on the broad gauge from Lahore to Peshawar and extended to Khewrah in 1882-83
in 1876-77, and was extended to Ahmedabad in 1880.

1886

III.

Statement showing stocks and quantities of salt manufactured, and the cost of manufacture and storage, at the Sambhar Lake from 1870-71 to 1900-01.

Year.	Quantity of salt in stock at the commencement of the year.	Quantity of salt manufactured.	COST AND OUTTURN OF PERMANENT SALT WORKS.		Annual rainfall.	COST OF MANUFACTURE AND STORAGE OF SALT PER MAUND, EXCLUDING CHARGES ON ACCOUNT OF ESTABLISHMENT AND INTEREST ON CAPITAL.		
			Amount of capital expended.	Quantity of salt manufactured.		Kyar salt.	Lake salt.	Pan salt.
	Mds.	Mds.	Rs.	Mds.	Inches.	Pies.	Pies.	Pies.
1870-71	19,73,014	11,42,039	(a) 10.20	5.28	(b)	3.63
1871-72	18,08,316	14,26,218	10.00	4.83	3.84	3.88
1872-73	21,67,725	15,85,037	During these years Kyar salt was obtained from works taken over from the Darbars and subsequently abandoned.		18.83	1.02	3.80	3.13
1873-74	22,72,537	16,28,999			24.78	2.45	4.46	3.37
1874-75	28,81,770	25,01,360			17.96	0.98	4.07	3.45
1875-76	40,22,169	16,58,032	26.07	3.95	4.24	3.81
1876-77	40,16,463	17,17,550	25.03	2.75	4.35	2.03
1877-78	38,84,191	59,28,398	10.13	0.91	4.47	3.15
1878-79	71,67,469	30,98,909	14.60	2.79	4.08	2.13
1879-80	81,64,510	5,00,328	2,338	...	25.16	...	6.37	3.00
1880-81	50,32,171	29,94,330	2,892	...	17.86	...	3.88	5.03
1881-82	46,67,990	32,90,057	1,40,299	81,913	18.44	4.43	4.46	4.22
1882-83	37,54,114	45,83,770	11,939	1,79,589	27.06	4.30	5.15	5.06
1883-84	45,45,290	71,11,353	27,114	9,51,311	15.22	3.49	4.87	3.89
1884-85	75,70,673	3,76,095	49,433	26,262	25.08	3.84	3.99	4.60
1885-86	26,43,148	17,61,290	1,277	6,20,635	23.67	3.35	...	4.72
1886-87	20,96,958	67,35,035	4,469	11,70,099	21.70	4.57	4.84	4.76
1887-88	48,26,625	34,97,583	29,338	2,67,452	25.50	4.38	7.75	4.65
1888-89	43,19,104	60,48,159	37,476	23,62,181	22.27	3.21	5.09	5.89
1889-90	73,97,512	20,42,200	95,332	9,77,421	22.69	4.04	8.14	8.04
1890-91	53,95,347	58,93,453	51,410	38,94,988	12.09	(c)	(c)	4.91
1891-92	69,48,457	34,42,109	73,907	22,32,175	11.89	(d)	(d)	5.76
1892-93	58,61,246	90,666	6,795	78,786	40.81	5.12	...	25.99
1893-94	2,82,125	44,51,151	...	25,46,951	27.68	3.84	2.88	5.40
1894-95	18,66,903	70,35,016	4,370	41,58,475	27.22	4.07	5.65	5.83
1895-96	48,82,430	51,29,304	31,689	35,82,543	15.63	3.86	5.61	6.66
1896-97	63,12,053	30,89,846	79,293	26,46,434	15.18	3.65	5.00	5.51
1897-98	55,26,238	18,31,629	51,604	16,00,126	14.96	3.47	6.83	5.14
1898-99	32,36,161	53,17,712	8,492	43,98,925	10.95	3.43	6.97	5.49
1899-00	43,24,174	16,38,910	8,563	14,65,991	9.13	2.76	...	7.86
1900-01	29,07,858	13,78,943	9,954	7,43,396	23.88	3.39	...	8.14
TOTAL	...	9,98,25,534	7,28,072	3,34,85,653

(a) Rainfall from 18th July to 30th September 1870.

(b) Figures not available.

(c) Combined rate 4.17 pies a maund.

(d) Combined rate 3.84 Pies a maund.

IV.

Year	Quantity of salt sold	Average sale price per maund	REMARKS
	Mds	Rs A P	
1870-71	12,45,892	0 10	f August 1883, old at varying prices. With effect has been sold
1871-72	11,28,932	0 9	
1872-73	13,13,409	0 10	
1873-74	11,52,870	0 10 7 08	(2) Salt sold at fixed prices
1874-75	10,65,471	0 10 6 35	
1875-76	15,91,664	0 9 4 25	
1876-77	17,62,434	0 7 10 94	(3) - Fluctuations in the average rates of sale since 1871-72 have been owing to changes made from time to time in the fixed uniform price except in 1893-93 and 1896-97 when some salt was sold at prices below the fixed rate owing to its inferiority in point of quality
1877-78	26,29,171	0 8 2 55	
1878-79	26,70,953	0 6 8 80	
1879-80	33,40,916	0 4 8 8	
1880-81	30,64,188	0 5 4 00	
1881-82	37,00,536	0 4 9 78	
1882-83	36,21,609	0 5 0 30	
1883-84	36,81,160	0 5 0 16	
1884-85	40,90,141	0 3 3 40	
1885-86	17,29,406	0 4 0 37	
1886-87	37,85,516	0 4 5 28	
1887-88	35,45,930	0 4 1 08	
1888-89	35,96,040	0 4 3 48	
1889-90	38,34,805	0 4 0 96	
1890-91	40,82,236	0 3 7 68	
1891-92	45,67,912	0 2 8 64	
1892-93	51,09,601	0 2 8 01	
1893-94	27,95,141	0 5 5 52	
1894-95	40,31,613	0 4 4 32	
1895-96	37,15,774	0 4 0 00	
1896-97	39,31,210	0 3 11 88	
1897-98	41,03,440	0 4 0 00	
1898-99	41,26,743	0 4 0 00	
1899-00	30,01,733	0 4 0 00	
1900-01	36,34,189	0 4 0 00	
Total	9,60,80,309		

V.

Statement showing stocks of salt, quantities manufactured and the cost of manufacture and storage, and sales with prices realised, at the Didwana Salt Source from 1878-79 to 1900-01.

Year.	MANUFACTURE.				SALES.	
	Quantity of salt in stock at the commencement of the year.	Quantity of salt manufactured.	Rainfall.	Cost per maund of manufacture and storage.	Quantity of salt sold.	Average sale price per maund.
	Mds.	Mds.	Inches.	Pies.	Mds.	Rs. A. P.
1878-79 ...	1,22,409	5,53,776	Figures not available.	3·64	3,57,875	0 5 5·76
1879-80 ...	3,18,310	5,63,699		3·39	3,35,895	0 3 6·
1880-81 ...	5,62,696	3,84,716		3·35	3,22,472	
1881-82 ...	6,01,754	2,55,404		3·56	3,19,719	
1882-83 ...	5,03,559	2,88,052		3·95	3,47,281	
1883-84 ...	4,44,127	3,93,432	13·54	4·24	3,08,196	0 1 9·33
1884-85 ...	5,55,241	3,74,990		4·50	3,61,936	
1885-86 ...	5,82,210	4,57,922		4·43	7,14,833	
1886-87 ...	3,34,697	4,79,225		4·42	5,89,296	
1887-88 ...	2,70,095	4,39,316		4·41	4,51,571	0 1 6·
1888-89 ...	2,60,545	6,07,356	17·16	4·41	4,00,236	
1889-90 ...	4,74,944	4,45,861	21·10	4·45	3,77,068	
1890-91 ...	5,12,382	2,64,329	9·50	5·42	2,60,168	
1891-92 ...	4,87,952	3,48,732	9·70	5·07	2,28,037	
1892-93 ...	6,35,047	1,51,182	20·76	5·68	2,23,218	0 1 9·41
1893-94 ...	6,00,875	36,673	21·86	7·53	5,00,899	
1894-95 ...	1,63,209	3,51,637	16·72	5·55	3,91,121	
1895-96 ...	1,88,596	5,39,793	15·81	5·25	3,64,678	
1896-97 ...	4,37,738	4,24,380	9·67	5·34	2,77,235	
1897-98 ...	6,14,661	1,94,137	23·56	5·51	2,78,403	0 0 10·85
1898-99 ...	5,43,708	1,99,669	·66	4·63	2,92,582	
1899-00 ...	4,70,468	2,38,409	3·06	4·51	2,94,283	
1900-01 ...	3,94,216	1,34,510	15·40	5·24	2,32,273	
Total ...		81,27,200	82,29,325	0 0 9

NOTES.—(1) During 1878-79, salt was sold from heaps at a fixed price of 3½ annas a maund. Parcels of salt were also sold on the works by auction to the highest bidder. The prices realised during the year varied from 3½ to 9 annas a maund.

(2) Since 1878-79, salt has been sold from heaps at a fixed uniform price, and the fluctuations in the average price have been owing to changes in rates from time to time.

VI.

Statement showing stocks of salt, quantities manufactured and rates paid to manufacturers, and sales with prices realised, at the Pachbadra Salt Source from 1878-79 to 1900-01.

Year.	MANUFACTURE.				SALES.	
	Quantity of salt in stock at the commencement of the year.	Quantity of salt manufactured.	Rainfall.	Rate per maund paid to manufacturers.	Quantity of salt sold.	Average sale price per maund.
	Mds.	Mds.	Inches.		Mds.	Rs. A. P.
1878-79	2,55,635	} Figures not available.	} Two annas.	1,18,639	0 3 7 92
1879-80 ...	1,63,886	3,46,256			4,53,030	0 3 6 60
1880-81 ...	1,54,408	5,59,747	10 69		4,73,715	0 3 6 12
1881-82 ...	3,84,163	3,64,848	17 61		6,87,253	0 3 10 08
1882-83 ...	2,49,449	7,66,102	13 30		5,30,331	0 3 11 76
1883-84 ...	5,06,566	4,74,607	8 21	} One anna...	4,97,473	0 3 6
1884-85 ...	5,62,179	74,460	15 71		4,31,409	0 1 6 59
1885-86 ...	2,85,858	4,95,450	8 57		4,94,225	} 0 1 5
1886-87 ...	3,74,453	4,70,971	11 63		4,81,576	
1887-88 ...	4,30,373	8,86,138	4 22		7,15,942	
1888-89 ...	7,20,536	4,91,315	5 45		6,53,453	
1889-90 ...	7,48,130	5,85,124	11 08		6,14,901	
1890-91 ...	7,96,090	4,44,225	8 05		4,49,166	
1891-92 ...	8,20,593	2,34,993	9 57		3,60,120	
1892-93 ...	7,49,726	...	18 48		4,79,263	
1893-94 ...	3,84,852	7,20 795	48 41		12,04,263	
1894-95 ...	—64,838	9,62,610	23 62		8,39,818	
1895-96 ...	1,93,558	5,43,648	10 09		5,97,114	
1896-97 ...	2,95,623	5,19,763	13 31		6,43,102	
1897-98 ...	3,64,232	3,42,232	13 36		5,94,827	
1898-99 ...	2,55,183	5,43,637	11 09		7,70,574	0 1 4 72
1899-00 ...	2,45,912	6,05,957	0 95		11,26,596	} 0 1 3
1900-01 ...	1,50,715	4,76,811	7 47		12,23,496	
Total	1,12,55,529	1,44,64,156	

NOTE.—Down to the 28th February 1883, salt was sold at the works at varying prices according to quality. Since that date, sales have been effected at fixed uniform rates, and the fluctuations in the average prices have occurred owing to changes made from time to time in these fixed rates.

Statement showing stocks and excavation of salt and rates paid to miners

Year.		MAYO MINE.			WARCHA MINE.		
		Salt in stock at the commencement of the year.	Salt excavated during the year.	Rate paid to miners.	Salt in stock at the commencement of the year.	Salt excavated during the year.	Rate paid to miners.
1869-70	...	Figures not available.	Figures not available.	(a) Rs 5 per 100 cubic feet or 7.11 pies a maund.	Figures not available.	Figures not available.	Figures not available.
1870-71	...						
1871-72	...						
1872-73	...						
1873-74	...		10,85,140	(a) Rs. 4-9-4 per 100 cubic feet or 6.52 pies a maund.			
1874-75	...		12,43,500				
1875-76	...		10,40,755				
1876-77	...		10,97,668				
1877-78	...		12,03,052				
1878-79	...		11,17,817				
1879-80	...		14,04,087				
1880-81	...		13,67,420				
1881-82	...		12,05,065				
1882-83	...		17,78,287				
1883-84	...		19,72,355				
1884-85	...		14,44,512				
1885-86	...		19,50,459				
1886-87	...		11,07,135				
1887-88	...		10,63,731	(b) Rs. 4-6-10 per 100 cubic feet or 6.30 pies a maund.			
1888-89	...		11,52,298				
1889-90	...		19,00,675				
1890-91	...		14,37,091				
1891-92	...		20,49,782	...	2,19,971	Rs. 3-12-0 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7.2 pies a maund.	
1892-93	...	5,51,980	19,95,627	95,000	45,967		
1893-94	...	7,02,265	18,02,348	30,000	89,754		
1894-95	...	5,58,386	18,19,233	12,483	1,24,452		
1895-96	...	4,84,344	17,19,269	35,000	75,193		
1896-97	...	5,48,586	18,82,229	25,000	80,028		
1897-98	...	4,90,175	18,36,868	6,000	80,512		
1898-99	...	4,86,814	19,57,792	13,000	70,827		
1899-00	...	4,03,838	18,36,104	0,000	1,06,008		
1900-01	...	2,83,230	23,36,139	6,500	93,059		
	...	4,97,025	21,23,285				
Total	4,59,29,702	...	9,85,776		

- NOTES.—(1) The rate paid for excavation at the Mayo Mine, includes the stacking of salt
 (2) At Warcha and Narpur, the rate for excavation includes the carriage of
 (3) At Kalabagh, the rate of excavation includes the carriage of the salt from the
 (4) No stocks are kept at the small mine of Narpur, excavation is effected as

in the cis-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division from 1869-70 to 1900-01.

KALABAGH QUARRIES			NURPUR MINE.		REMARKS.
Salt in stock at the commencement of the year.	Salt excavated during the year.	Rate paid to miners.	Stock excavated during the year.	Rate paid to miners.	
Figures not available.	Figures not available.	Rs 4-1-0 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7 89 pies a maund	Figures not available.	Figures not available.	(a) The weight of 100 cubic feet of rock salt is taken at 130 maunds.
		(c)			(b) The miners were paid at the rate of Rs 4 6-10 per 100 cubic feet or 6 30 pies a maund down to the 31st of January 1890, and at Rs 5-7 6 per 100 cubic feet or 7 77 pies a maund from the 1st of February 1890.
		Rs 3-12-0 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7 2 pies a maund.			(c) The rate down to the 30th September 1891 was Rs. 4-1-0 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7 89 pies a maund, and from the 1st October 1891, the rate was reduced to Rs 3-12-0 per 100 maunds or 7 2 pies a maund.
..	79,257	(d)	4,341		(d) The rate down to the 31st May 1891 was Rs. 3-12-0 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7 2 pies a maund, and from the 1st June 1891 it was increased to Rs 4 per 100 maunds or 7 68 pies a maund.
41,973	27,723		4,432	Rs 3-12-0 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7 2 pies a maund.	
27,380	30,395		4,808		
"	90,992		4,122		
10,003	99,350	Rs. 4 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7 68 pies a maund.	4,450		
16,803	64,235		4,111		
18,000	95,251		4,665		
10,000	1,19,819		4,195		
20,000	1,50,766		3,221		
10,000	1,32,077	Rs. 4-2 0 per 100 maunds of salt sold or 7 92 pies a maund.	3,221		
...	9,19,850				

at the trawway loading stations within the mine, and the removal of waste from the chambers, salt to the mine mouth, and the removal of waste from the chambers, quarries to the Depot and stacking it there. salt is required.

Statement showing quantities of salt sold and prices realized in the cis-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division from 1869-70 to 1900-01.

Year.	QUANTITIES OF SALT SOLD.					Sale price per maund realized.
	Mayo Mine.	Warcha Mine.	Kalabagh Quarries.	Nurpur Mine.	Total.	
	Mds.	Mds.	Mds.	Mds.	Mds.	Rs. A. P.
1869-70 ...	Figures not available.	Figures not available.	Figures not available.	Figures not available.	14,97,153	0 1 0
1870-71 ...					12,21,467	
1871-72 ...					12,67,535	
1872-73 ...					13,66,494	
1873-74 ...					13,70,509	
1874-75 ...					13,24,863	
1875-76 ...					12,05,281	
1876-77 ...					12,79,859	
1877-78 ...					14,34,431	
1878-79 ...					14,44,479	
1879-80 ...					15,02,881	
1880-81 ...					14,54,512	
1881-82 ...	12,63,935	1,19,410	73,374	3,741	14,60,460	*0 0 10'63
1882-83 ...	13,11,110	1,67,612	89,269	4,195	15,72,186	
1883-84 ...	13,32,633	1,85,332	81,175	4,229	16,03,369	
1884-85 ...	13,79,975	1,42,912	81,287	4,069	16,08,243	
1885-86 ...	14,89,733	1,83,703	70,322	4,664	17,48,422	
1886-87 ...	15,83,618	1,64,967	92,165	4,574	18,45,324	
1887-88 ...	15,31,250	1,48,223	75,923	4,506	17,59,902	
1888-89 ...	17,80,968	1,10,871	62,834	3,985	19,58,658	
1889-90 ...	19,68,466	1,37,391	28,682	4,442	21,40,981	
1890-91 ...	18,02,445	1,09,100	24,300	4,436	19,40,281	
1891-92 ...	18,14,898	1,24,971	34,285	4,344	19,78,498	0 0 9
1892-93 ...	19,46,227	1,10,967	44,815	4,432	21,06,441	
1893-94 ...	18,93,275	1,07,271	67,266	4,808	20,72,620	
1894-95 ...	16,55,028	1,01,935	80,323	4,122	18,41,408	
1895-96 ...	19,40,610	85,198	93,152	4,486	21,23,476	
1896-97 ...	18,40,229	99,023	83,101	4,111	20,26,469	
1897-98 ...	19,75,768	73,512	1,01,254	4,465	21,57,999	
1898-99 ...	20,21,712	77,827	1,19,819	4,195	22,23,553	
1899-00 ...	21,21,743	1,05,508	1,60,766	3,221	23,91,238	
1900-01 ...	21,75,463	91,759	1,32,077	3,221	24,05,520	

* Average price of the year. From the 1st April to the 24th October 1882, the sale price was one anna a maund; and from the 25th October 1882, nine pies a maund.

NOTE.—A charge of six pies a maund is made on the salt of the Mayo Mine, in addition to the price of nine pies, in order to cover the cost of its carriage from the mine to the Warthganj Depot and its final clearance.

RULES RELATING TO THE UNIFORM OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE DEPARTMENT.

1. A uniform kit will in future be issued free to all men on the establishment of the Northern India Salt Revenue Department of and below the rank of Kotgasht, who have received substantive appointments, and will be replaced from time to time by the Department, subject to the following rules. Substitutes, and petty officers and peons who have not been confirmed in their appointments, will not be supplied with clothing.

Articles of uniform.

2. The following articles constitute a complete kit:—

- 1 Khaki drill coat, reaching down to mid thigh.
- 1 Pair of khaki drill knickerbockers.
- 1 Warm jersey (for the Kohat Division only)
- 1 Yellow kullah.
- 1 Khaki pagri
- 1 Pair of khaki pattis.
- 1 Blanket cloth great coat with cape
- 1 Chevron (to be worn only by petty officers, 2 stripes for Jemadars, 3 stripes for Kotgashts)
- 1 Kit cloth four feet square (country, dyed yellow with a tape 4½ feet long sewn on corner).

Great coats will also be supplied at the Rajputana sources, in the Kohat and cis-Indus Mines Divisions, and at the Mandi Salt Mines and Sultanpur Salt Works in the Punjab.

3. Shoes will not be supplied by the Department and must be provided by the men themselves. Shoes should be of plain leather and of native pattern.

4. All articles of clothing issued by the Department shall remain the property of Government after issue.

5. A nominal roll—form No. 132 annexed—of the men entitled to receive clothing shall be maintained, the roll for the men in each Division being kept in the Assistant Commissioner's office, and for the men in each Beat or Circle in the Beat or Circle Office. The number under which a man is enrolled shall not be changed throughout his service, and in the event of his retirement, removal or dismissal, the number shall be transferred to the man who is confirmed in the appointment of peon in the vacancy created.

6. Any article of clothing lost, damaged or destroyed through carelessness, or which becomes unserviceable before the time prescribed for it in Rule 11, shall be replaced at the cost of the petty officer or peon to whom it has been issued ; and the cost shall be recovered from the pay or security money, or both, due to the man in fault. And any man who absconds and takes away with him any article of clothing supplied by the Department, or who wilfully destroys or makes away with any such article, will be liable to prosecution.

7. Arrangements for the supply by contractors of all articles of clothing will be made by the Commissioner, and an account of receipts and expenditure connected therewith, form No. 133 annexed, will be maintained in the Central Office. Great coats, coats, knickerbockers and kullahs will be made of standard sizes, and each article will be stamped by the contractor with a number indicating its size. The Commissioner will from time to time prescribe standard size which experience may show to be the most suitable. Sealed patterns of articles of clothing shall be kept in stock at the head quarters of each Division, and supplies ordered by the Commissioner will be forwarded by the contractors direct to the Divisions for which they are required. Assistant Commissioners shall inspect such supplies and report whether they are equal in quality to the sealed patterns. Articles inferior to those patterns shall be rejected and returned to the contractors.

8. Every Sub-Divisional officer and every officer in independent charge shall submit, not later than the 15th January in each year, an annual indent, form No. 134 annexed, for such articles of clothing as may be required in his Sub-Division, Beat or Circle to replace articles which have become unserviceable. The nominal roll number and the name of every man for whom clothing is applied for in the indent, as well as the date of issue of the articles it is proposed to replace, and the period they have been in *actual* use shall be shown in the column of remarks opposite the articles applied for. No article shall be included in Part I of the indent that is not required to replace an article which has become unserviceable and has been in actual use for the full time prescribed in Rule 11. Spare articles may be indented for in Part II of the indent to the extent that will probably be required to replace under Rule 6 articles lost, damaged or destroyed. The Assistant Commissioner of the Division shall carefully examine the indents received, and if necessary correct or alter them, and shall then prepare and submit to the Commissioner, not later than the 15th February, a consolidated indent in the same form for his Division.

9. All articles of new clothing received for a Division shall be stored in the office of the Assistant Commissioner until they are forwarded to Beat or Circle Officers for issue. A register of receipts and issues, form No. 135 annexed, shall be maintained in every office responsible for storing or issuing clothing.

10 Every coat, every pair of knickerbockers and every kullah issued to a petty officer or peon shall be properly fitted under the supervision of the officer who issues it, and a bill for the cost of alterations will be prepared and submitted to the Central Office. The bill on payment will be charged against the clothing grant. Every article of new clothing issued shall be stamped with a stamp, which will be supplied on application, showing the year and month of issue and the nominal roll number of the man to whom it has been issued. The stamp shall be impressed on great coats and coats at the back just below the neck-band inside, on knickerbockers at the back on the inside of the wristband, on kullahs inside at the back, on pagris at one end on the reverse side, on pattis at the tape and on the reverse side, on chevrons in the centre on the reverse side, and on kit cloths on the outside at the tape corner.

11 Great coats must be maintained in serviceable condition for at least six years, coats, pagris, kullahs and pattis for at least two years, knickerbockers for at least one year, jerseys and kit cloths at least for three years, and chevrons for three years. A new kit may be applied for to replace a kit that has been in actual use for the time prescribed above.

12 Men transferred from one Beat or Circle to another in the same Division, or from one Division to another, shall take their kits with them. A list of the clothing taken, showing the name of each article and its condition, shall in such cases be forwarded by post by the Officer in charge of the Beat, Circle or Division from which a man has been transferred, to the Officer in charge of the Beat, Circle or the Division to which he is going.

13 A man may not wear his uniform while on leave. Men proceeding on leave, and men who have resigned or who have been removed or dismissed, shall make over their kits, at his office, to the officer of the Beat or Circle in which they may be serving at the time, or, in the case of a Circle, to such other official as the officer of the Circle may direct.

14 In the event of a man dying from a disease that is not infectious, the officer or petty officer, in charge of the choki or party at or with which the man was employed, shall take charge of the deceased's kit and shall deliver it to the officer of the Beat or Circle, or in the case of a Circle to such other official as the Officer of the Circle may direct. The kit of a man dying of an infectious disease, such as small-pox, shall be promptly destroyed under the supervision of the superior officer on the spot.

15 Every kit taken over under the two preceding rules shall be marked with a label showing the name and rank of the man from whom it was received or to whom it was issued, his father's name, and the date on which the man proceeded on leave, resigned or was removed or dismissed, or on which he died.

16. Every article taken over under Rule 13 shall be examined in the presence of the man from whom it is received; and if any loss or damage or unfair wear and tear is noticed, the officer or other official who takes it over shall inquire into and report on the matter and shall also withhold any pay that may be due to the man concerned until such time as orders are received. If the man is proved to be in fault, the Assistant Commissioner shall replace the article or articles from the stock in his office, and shall order the cost to be recovered from his pay or security money or both. If the man is not in fault, the article or articles shall be replaced at the cost of Government. Articles found to be unserviceable shall be torn up and sold, or destroyed if they are unsaleable. Any article, which though damaged is still serviceable, shall be re-issued.

17. Serviceable articles of clothing taken over from men proceeding on leave shall be re-issued to the men when they rejoin from such leave, and serviceable articles taken over from men who have resigned, or who have been removed or dismissed, may be re-issued. Serviceable articles taken over under Rule 14 may be similarly re-issued to the man appointed substantively in the place of the deceased.

18. Every man shall wear uniform clothing while he is on duty and each article shall be properly put on. The slack part of the coat should be gathered in a neat fold under the belt on each side, and not at the back. Uniform clothing must not be worn in place of ordinary clothes when men are off duty, and men found sleeping in their uniform should be punished. Great coats may be worn between 6 o'clock P.M. and 9 o'clock A.M. when men are on duty, and also during the day when the cold is severe. The cape should not be turned up except when it is raining.

19. Soiled articles of clothing shall be carefully washed by or at the cost of the men to whom they have been issued; and nothing stronger than soap, soda or sajji shall be used to wash them. Ingredients containing acids, such as mango peel, limes, *rittha* (soap nuts), which spoil the colour, shall not be used.

20. Beat Officers, Sub-Divisional Officers and Circle Officers, shall periodically inspect carefully the kits of all men under their orders, and shall report any deficiency or damage noticed. The Assistant Commissioner on receipt of any such report shall, if the man be in fault, replace the article or articles from stock and order the cost to be recovered from his pay or security money or both. If the man is not in fault, the article or articles shall be replaced at the cost of Government. Kit inspections, as above, shall be made by Beat Officers at least once a month, by Sub-Divisional Officers quarterly, and by Circle Officers as frequently as possible.

21 A sum of Rs (8) eight shall be recovered from every petty officer or peon on his first receiving a substantive appointment in the Kohat Division, and shall be retained in deposit as security, to be forfeited in the event of his absconding and taking his kit away with him. Recovery of the amount shall be effected by stoppages from the man's pay at the rate of 8 annas a month commencing from the month following that in which he was appointed. This security money shall be repayable when a man is permitted to leave the service or is transferred to another Division, subject to any deductions that may be ordered under Rule 6, but shall be forfeited to the Badge Fund when a man has been removed or dismissed from the service.

22 Recoveries ordered under Rules 6 and 20 shall also ordinarily be effected by stoppages from the pay of the man concerned at the rate of 8 annas a month, commencing from the month in which the order of recovery was issued. Recoveries ordered under Rule 16 shall be effected in a lump sum by deduction from the pay or security money, or both, due at the time to the man concerned. If the sum due is not sufficient to meet the recovery ordered and the man be proceeding on leave, the balance shall be recovered from his pay when he rejoins at the rate of 8 annas a month and the security money shall also be made good in the same manner.

23 Recoveries on one account ordered from a man who is at the time under stoppages on another account, shall begin to be effected from the month next after that in which the recovery of the stoppages first imposed was completed.

Procedure to be followed in connection with recoveries

24 Assistant Commissioners shall keep in their offices a separate debit and credit account form No 136 for each man from whom recoveries are ordered, which shall show the nature and amount of every recovery ordered and of each deduction from pay made on account of it, and the balance remaining unrecovered after each credit entry.

25 All sums recovered from pay under these rules and all sale proceeds of articles sold shall be paid into a Government treasury to the credit of the Badge Fund of the Department, and shall be shown as receipts and remittances to the treasury on that account in the Daily Cash Account of the office in which they were recovered.

Recoveries to be paid into treasury

26 All recoveries from security money under Rule 22 shall be credited in the Badge Fund Accounts, by reducing, to the extent of the recovery ordered in each case, the amount of the security repayable to the man concerned and increasing to the same extent the available balance of the Fund.

Recoveries to be credited to the Badge Fund

27. Recoveries from pay shall be effected by entering in the column "Badge Fund" in the pay acquittance rolls and abstracts, the amount to be deducted each month. The net amount of pay to be drawn from a treasury will not, however, be reduced and the following entry shall therefore always be made in the pay acquittance rolls and abstracts, below the grand total of "net charge":—

Add amount deducted on account of Badge Fund	Rs.	...
		<hr/>
Net amount to be drawn from the treasury	Rs.	...
		<hr/>

Deductions shown in pay acquittance rolls on account of the Badge Fund shall be carefully checked in Assistant Commissioners' offices with (1) the orders for recoveries issued, and (2) the debit and credit account kept for each man, in order to guard against the omission of recoveries ordered to be made or the recovery of sums not due.

28. The following foot-note shall be entered in the Departmental Fund Account of the Kohat Division submitted monthly to the Commissioner:—

Account to be maintained in the Kohat Mines Division.

On account of clothing lost, etc., and sale proceeds of unserviceable clothing.

			Rs.
Balance from last account
Credited in treasuries during the month	
Add amount transferred from security money	
Add amount of security money forfeited	
			<hr/>
		TOTAL	...
			<hr/>

On account of security money.

			Rs.
Balance from last account
Credited in treasuries during the month	
			<hr/>
		TOTAL	...
			<hr/>

Deduct—

			Rs.
Amount transferred
Recoveries on account of clothing lost, etc.	
Amount forfeited
			<hr/>
Net amount of security money repayable

Uniform to be worn by Inspectors in
the Kohat Division

29 The following uniform shall be worn by
Inspectors posted to the Kohat Mines Division —

Khaki pagri with yellow lullah the pagri to be 10 yards in length by $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet in breadth, edged on both sides with scarlet silk one inch in breadth and with a scarlet silk fringe at one end

Khaki drill jacket, with pockets over each breast, and shoulder straps, and with peaked cuffs Removable electroplated badges bearing the initials of the Department to be worn on each shoulder strap The jacket to have nine electroplated buttons, five down the front and one for each pocket and shoulder strap

Khaki drill knickerbockers with patts of the same colour

Shoes of plain leather and of country pattern.

Great coat (regulation) of grey cloth

The great coat will be supplied at the cost of Government, but the other articles of uniform will be provided by Inspectors at their own expense The great coat is expected to remain in serviceable condition for six years, and each coat will be registered and dealt with in the same manner as the great coats issued to the subordinate establishment

Inspectors in other Divisions of the Department will not be required to wear uniform

Nominal Roll of the men who are entitled to receive clothing in the

No. under which enrolled.	Name.	Father's name.

132.

Division .
Beat or Circle

Caste.	Residence, i e, village, Parganah, District and Province	REMARKS.

Abstract of Badge Fund

[illegible]

No 133.

Account for the year 19 — 19 .

[illegible]

Form No. 134.

Annual Indent for Clothing for the year 19 —19 .

ARTICLES INDENTED FOR																				REMARKS.					
Sanctioned strength of petty officers and peons.	Standard sizes.																Pajnts.	Pajnts, pairs.	Cheerons.		Kit cloths.				
	GREAT COATS.				COATS.				KNICKERBOCKERS.													KULLANS.			
	i	ii	iii	i	ii	iii	iv	i	ii	iii	iv	i	ii	iii	iv	i						ii	iii	iv	
					
I. To replace articles that have been in use for the prescribed period					
II. To replace articles lost, etc.					
Total of I and II					
III. Deduct articles in stock					
Net required					

NOTE.—(a) See Rule 8 of uniform rules regarding preparation of this indent.
(b) Deat and Circle offices will enter nothing against III as they keep no stock of spare clothing.

Dated

Signature

Designation

NOTES -- The balance should be struck every day that leaves occur. When clothing is issued to a man, his name, father's name, caste and residence, should be entered in column 2.

Account of recoveries ordered and effected from No. _____.

(1) Name _____ (2) Caste _____

(3) Parganah _____ (4) District _____

[illegible]

BOOK CIRCULAR No 1 OF 1903

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The revised rules for the grant of Exchange Compensation Allowance, with other orders of the Government of India relating to the subject, are published for information.

R M DANE,
Commissioner

*Resolution No 242^o Ex, dated Simla, the 31st May 1897, of the Government of India
in the Finance and Commerce Department*

READ—

- Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, No 3624 A, dated the 18th August 1893, and annexure
- Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, No 3900 A, dated the 7th September 1893
- Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department No 661 P, dated the 6th February 1894
- Letter from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Government of Bengal, No 2630 Ex, dated the 29th May 1894
- Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department No 3193 Ex, dated the 26th June 1894
- Letter from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Accountant General, Punjab, No 2743 P, dated the 31st May 1894
- Office memo from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Government of India Public Works Department, No 3571 Ex, dated the 16th July 1894
- Extract (paragraph 3) from a Military letter from Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India No 135, dated the 30th November 1893
- Letter from the Government of India in the Military Department to the Controller of Military Accounts Eastern Circle, Bengal, No 2459 P, dated the 27th July 1894
- Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, No 4524 Ex, dated the 7th September 1894
- Letter from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department to the Accountant General, Punjab No 4568 Ex dated the 3rd November 1894
- Letter from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Accountant General, Bombay, No 6143 Ex, dated the 18th December 1894
- Letter from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Accountant General, Bengal, No 558 P, dated the 31st January 1895
- Despatch to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, No 236, dated the 24th October 1894, and enclosure,
- Despatch from Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India No 44 (Financial), dated the 14th March 1895
- Despatch to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India No 273, dated the 25th September 1895
- Despatch from Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India No. 20 (Financial) dated the 30th January 1896
- Letter from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department to the Government of Bengal, No 2624 A, dated the 17th June 1895
- Despatch to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, No 311, dated the 28th October 1896, and enclosure
- Despatch from Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, No 41 (Financial), dated the 25th February 1897, and enclosure

Resolution.

The Rules annexed to this Resolution are issued in supersession of all previous Rules regarding the officers entitled to Exchange Compensation Allowance, and the following additional explanations are given as to the principles on which these Rules are to be applied.

2. It is to be borne in mind in applying the Rules that Europe includes the English-speaking colonies, and that Eurasians who are not Statutory natives of India are to be reckoned as Europeans.

3. As regards *officers appointed in England*, all Europeans so appointed, whether in the military or the civil service, will be entitled to Exchange Compensation Allowance unless their salaries are fixed in sterling, or unless they are specifically excluded from it by the terms of their engagement.

4. As regards *officers appointed in India*, they will not be eligible for Exchange Compensation Allowance if they belong to the class to which an important privilege as to appointments in India is secured by the Statute 33 Vict., cap. 3. That class is thus defined in the Statute :—

“The words ‘Natives of India’ shall include any person born and domiciled within the dominions of Her Majesty in India of parents habitually resident in India and not established there for temporary purposes only.”

5. But before officers appointed in India and not excluded by the above test are eligible for Exchange Compensation Allowance, two further qualifications are necessary—

(1) They must have been appointed either (a) to offices in which European qualifications are held to be indispensable or (b) to services and departments in which a proportion of Europeans is held to be indispensable.

(2) They must have been appointed as Europeans, and in the second case, for the purpose of maintaining the requisite proportion of Europeans.

6. It is not possible, without some little delay, to make complete lists of offices, services or departments falling within the categories (a) and (b) abovementioned. For the present the following orders are issued, and Local Governments and Departments are desired, as soon as possible, to make any recommendations for further inclusion in the lists, in order that definite orders may issue.

A.—Offices in which European qualifications are held to be indispensable.

7. The following are included :—

(1) Appointments limited (or practically so) to barristers, or members of the Faculty of Advocates in Scotland.

(2) Appointments limited to persons who possess a special education or skill that is obtainable only in England, such as the higher medical appointments; appointments connected with special scientific investigation; engineering appointments in the cases where officers have been taken over from companies or specially appointed by reason of European experience (Civil Service Regulations 703 and 709); skilled artisans with European training; appointments connected with Marine or Shipping.

(3) Appointments in services and departments which are in all but exceptional cases restricted to members of the Indian Civil Service or officers of the army. Officers

not belonging to these two classes, who have in the past been admitted to these services and departments, will be entitled to exchange compensation allowance. In most cases this kind of admission has now ceased and a substitute for it has been found in the admission of Provincial Service officers to listed posts. Officers admitted under these new rules are not entitled, as they do not comply with the second condition abovementioned, *viz*, they have not been admitted as Europeans.

(4) Appointments which by practice or order are confined to men enlisted in the British Army

B—Services and departments in which a proportion of Europeans is held by the Government of India to be indispensable

8 The only services and departments which have as yet been admitted within this category are those referred to in the orders of 1879 regarding appointment and promotion of Europeans. They are—

- (1) the Account Departments, Civil, Public Works and Military, and the Forest Department so far as these are filled by appointment after examination, and
- (2) the Education Department in the case of persons appointed by the Secretary of State

The following Departments —Opium, Salt, Customs, Survey, Mint, Public Works and Police

These orders do not refer to appointments of which the pay is less than Rs 200

9 There is a further important restriction to be observed with regard to all the services and departments. Not all Europeans in these appointments are eligible, but only those who have been appointed “as Europeans” and “for the purpose of maintaining the proportion” of Europeans held to be indispensable.

10 To many of the departments named (perhaps to most of them) there are two avenues of admission. In the Account Department there is admission by nomination and examination, and there is admission by promotion from the Subordinate Account Service. In most of the branches of the Public Works Department there is admission by appointment in England, and admission by appointment in India under regulations which are equally open to Europeans and Natives. In all these cases it is the first kind of appointment only which is designed to maintain the indispensable proportion of Europeans, and those appointed under the second method are not appointed as Europeans and for the purpose of maintaining the proportion and they are, therefore, under the orders now conveyed, not eligible. The same is the case, as has been pointed out, with “Provincial Service” officers admitted to “listed appointments.”

11 The admission of officers holding subordinate and ministerial appointments is to be decided by the criteria above explained. In the main, those who are serving in subordinate positions will not fulfil the necessary conditions, but if there are subordinate offices as doubtless there are, which in the public interest must at present be held by Europeans, the persons so selected for them will be entitled to draw the allowance. In the present Resolution no orders are issued for the admission

of such officers (except those which are sanctioned as offices to be held by British soldiers drawing a staff pay). But Local Governments and Departments will include in the recommendations they send with reference to paragraph 6 above any subordinate or ministerial offices which they consider to come under classes A and B above.

12. Rule XIII of the annexed Rules, so far as it provides for the withdrawal of the Exchange Compensation Allowance from officers who have been admitted to it under past Rules, will not be brought into force until the proposed lists of appointments are considered and determined. When that is done, the limitation prescribed must be applied to all officers who do not come within the list. But meantime no person who is not clearly admissible within the instructions now issued should be admitted to Exchange Compensation Allowance.

ORDER.—Ordered, that the foregoing Resolution be published in the *Gazette of India*, and that it be circulated to all Local Governments and Administrations; to Departments of the Government of India; and to Heads of Departments subordinate to the Financial Department; with the request that the recommendations called for in paragraph 6 be made with all possible despatch.

Ordered also that it be communicated to all Accountants General and Comptrollers for information and guidance.

J. F. FINLAY,

Secretary to the Government of India.

Rules regarding the grant of Exchange Compensation.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council is pleased to prescribe the following Rules in regard to the grant of Exchange Compensation, in supersession of those published with Resolution No. 3624-A., dated the 18th of August 1893, and other orders on the subject.

2. His Excellency in Council takes this opportunity of declaring that the grant of Exchange Compensation is a provisional addition to salary, calculated on the difference between the gold value of half salary at the market rate of exchange, and its value at a privileged rate which, for the present, is fixed at 1s. 6d. per rupee, subject to the condition that it shall in no case exceed in any quarter the amount of rupees by which 250% converted at the privileged rate shall fall short of the equivalent of 250% converted at the market rate.

3. The Government of India reserve to themselves full power at any time to reconsider the whole subject, without admitting any vested rights to receive the compensation in the form now sanctioned, or in any other form.

4. The object of granting Exchange Compensation is to secure certain classes of Indian public servants against serious depreciation of their emoluments by the fall in the sterling value of rupee salaries, so that they may be enabled to live according to their station, and that the public service may continue to attract recruits of the same high quality as heretofore.

RULES

I The grant of Exchange Compensation is deemed to be justified on the consideration stated above, in the case of those public servants only who supply the indispensable European element in the administrative body of Indian officials

II The officers who fulfil the above conditions are —

(1) Europeans appointed in England ,

(2) Officers appointed as Europeans in India to offices in which European qualifications are held to be indispensable, or to services and departments in which a proportion of Europeans is held by the Government of India to be indispensable, and for the purpose of maintaining that proportion

Europe, in the meaning of this Rule, shall be deemed to include the English-speaking colonies

III The Government of India shall from time to time determine what are the offices or services in which European qualifications are deemed to be indispensable

IV (1) No person hereafter appointed in India to such an office or service shall be eligible for Exchange Compensation, unless, on appointment, he shall be declared eligible by a certificate granted by the Indian Government by or under which such appointment is made

(2) The certificate will set forth the grounds upon which the holder is deemed to be a European of the Class described in Rule I

(3) Such certificate shall not be given to any person who is qualified for appointment under 33 Vict, c 3 sec 6

(4) The decision of the Government of India as to the granting or refusing of such a certificate is final

V Exchange Compensation is not admissible to—

(a) Persons temporarily appointed to the service of Government for a specified duty only, upon allowances definitely fixed for the particular case

(b) Persons serving under a contract in which their allowances are definitely fixed, which is not preliminary to employment in one of the regular services of the Government, and five years of service under which have not elapsed ,

(c) Persons who are not members of any regular service, and who are employed in a professional capacity (such as lawyers, teachers, lecturers, clergymen, medical men), without being debarred from the private exercise of their profession

VI If any part of an officer's salary is fixed in sterling, and is converted into rupees at the rate of exchange fixed annually for the adjustment of transactions between England and India, the allowance is payable only in respect of the excess, if any of the portion of his salary not fixed in sterling, over the portion fixed in sterling

When a wound or good service pension due to an officer serving in India, is received by him in sterling in England, an abatement should be made from the Exchange Compensation drawn in India, the amount of the abatement being equal to the

amount by which the equivalent of the sterling pension at the official rate of Exchange is exceeded by that at the market rate fixed for the quarter for the payment of Exchange Compensation.

Subsidiary Rules.

VII. The allowance is granted in the form of a percentage on the officer's salary, which will be calculated by the Comptroller General each quarter, and notified by him about the 15th day of the final month in the preceding quarter. Subject to the limits prescribed in clause 2, it will be based on the amount by which the average demand rate of exchange in Calcutta during the quarter ending on the date named falls short of the privileged rate of exchange.

VIII. The percentage fixed for any quarter is applicable to all payments of salary falling due during that quarter. Thus the percentage for the July to September quarter applies to salary payable between the 1st of July and 30th of September, which ordinarily is the salary for June, July and August.

When salary is drawn for a portion of a month Exchange Compensation is admissible only for that portion of the month, and the maximum monthly limit, if applicable, must be proportionately reduced.

IX. The allowance is payable, month by month, with pay, and under the Rules under which pay is drawn ; and it will be charged as pay, but under a separate detailed head. In the case of officers whose emoluments are governed by the Civil Service Regulations, the allowance is admissible only on salary as defined in Article 47. In the case of officers whose emoluments are governed by the Indian Army Regulations, it is admissible only on pay, Indian allowances and Staff pay.

Deputation allowance does not come within the definition of " salary " in Article 47 of the Civil Service Regulations and consequently Exchange Compensation is not admissible in respect of it. But if in any case deputation allowance has been specially permitted to count as salary for calculating leave allowance it may also count for Exchange Compensation.

X. Exchange Compensation is admissible on leave allowances fixed in rupees and drawn in India.

XI. Exchange Compensation is not admissible, under the orders of the Government of India, to Government officers in foreign service. The Government of India, however, so far as they are concerned, agree to the grant of it to such officers under the present rules and restrictions. But it is in each case for the foreign employer to decide in the first instance whether he is willing to grant the allowance or not. If he signifies his desire to give the allowance the sanction of the Local Government by whom the officer's services were lent should be applied for, with a full statement of the grounds on which the officer considers himself to be eligible for the allowance.

XII. Family remittances of pay are not permissible to any officer who is, at the time in respect of which the pay is due, in receipt of Exchange Compensation.

XIII. These Rules shall come into force with effect from the 1st of April 1897, provided that officers to whom Exchange Compensation would not be admissible under these Rules, but who have been admitted to it under the Rules previously in force, will

continue to draw it to the extent of the salaries they were drawing on the 1st of April 1897, but any increase in their salary after that date will be taken in reduction and ultimately in extinction of the claim to the allowance

Resolution No 4847-Ex, dated Simla, the 5th November 1898, of the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department,

READ AGAIN—

Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department No 2422 Ex, dated the 31st May 1897

Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department No 4336 Ex, dated the 8th November 1897

Resolution

In the Resolution of 31st May 1897, cited in the preamble, with which the revised rules for the grant of Exchange Compensation Allowance were promulgated, certain general orders were issued as to the list of (a) officers in which European qualifications are indispensable, and (b) services and departments in which a proportion of Europeans is held to be indispensable, and Local Governments and Departments were invited to make any recommendations for further inclusion in the lists. These having now been received from almost all quarters, His Excellency the Governor General in Council is pleased to issue the following further order as to what are the appointments by virtue of holding which an officer, *appointed in India*, not being a Statutory native, becomes entitled to Exchange Compensation Allowance

It should be clearly understood in all cases that the present orders relate solely to the question as to what are the appointments by virtue of holding which an officer, if not otherwise excluded, becomes entitled to Exchange Compensation Allowance. They do not, therefore, render a person appointed in India eligible for the allowance, if he is a *Native of India* within the definition of that term in Statute 33 Vict, cap 8, section 6.

* * * * *

Salt Department

25 In the Salt Department executive appointments are chiefly officered by Europeans, domiciled and non-domiciled, the number of Asiatic natives in all but the lowest appointments, being comparatively small. It is accordingly ruled that all officers of the Salt Department holding appointments not lower in rank than that of Assistant Superintendent in Northern India, Assistant Inspector in Madras and Inspector in Bombay, shall, if otherwise eligible, obtain Exchange Compensation Allowance

* * * * *

*Resolution No. 2418-Ex., dated Simla, the 26th May 1899, of the Government of India
in the Finance and Commerce Department.*

READ—

Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, No. 2422-Ex., dated the 31st May 1897.

Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, No. 4847-Ex., dated the 5th November 1898.

Resolution by the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, No. 5010-Ex., dated the 17th November 1898.

Resolution.

The claim of an officer appointed in India to receive Exchange Compensation Allowance under the rules at present in force depends on two factors, which may be described as *personal* and *official* eligibility.

Personal eligibility is obtained only by being outside "the class to which an important privilege as to appointment in India is secured by the Statute 33 Vict., cap. 3" (paragraph 4 of Resolution in this Department, No. 2422-Ex., dated 31st May 1897).

Official eligibility depends on the tenure of an appointment, or the membership of a service or Department, which has been declared by the Government of India to render its holder or member entitled to Exchange Compensation Allowance if personally eligible.

2. The Resolution in this Department, dated 5th November 1898, No. 4847-Ex., has given detailed instructions in regard to official eligibility, and the Government of India now consider it desirable, in order to reduce the references which have hitherto been made to them on the subject, to lay down more specific instructions than have yet been promulgated in regard to the determination of personal eligibility.

3. It will be recollected that in the Circular letter of the Government of India in the Home Department, dated 18th April 1879, No. 21—746-53, it was ruled that no

* That is, "a person born and domiciled within the dominions of Her Majesty in India, of parents habitually resident in India and not established there for temporary purposes only.

person other than a Native of India as defined in section 6 of 33 Vict.,* cap. 3, should save in certain excepted Departments, be thereafter appointed to an office carrying a salary of Rs. 200 a month or upwards

without the special sanction of the Governor General in Council. Persons who belong to the class (Natives of India) who are thus protected as against outside competitors are not eligible for exchange compensation allowance. In the case therefore of a claimant for exchange compensation allowance who has been born in India and whose father was at that time in the country, the first thing to be considered is not the appointment or Department which he at present holds or belongs to, but whether, if he had at the time he first entered Government service been an applicant for a post to which the restrictive orders of 1879 apply (a Deputy Collectorship for example), he

could have been appointed thereto without the special sanction of the Government of India. An Indian-born applicant for such a post would not, whatever his race, be regarded as falling under the restrictive orders of 1879 if he had been wholly or mainly brought up in this country. It follows, therefore, that a man of this description should be held *prima facie* ineligible on personal grounds for exchange compensation allowance, whatever his actual appointment may be, and if he demurs to this presumption, it will fall upon him to show fully and clearly—

(a) That he was not domiciled in India at the time of his first appointment to Government service, or

(b) That his parents were only temporary residents in this country.

If he cannot do this, his claim fails.

4 The disposal of "personal eligibility" claims to exchange compensation allowance should further be subject to the following principles —

(1) In all cases in which the question whether or not the officer concerned is a 'Statutory native' has already been raised in connection with some claim of his to the privileges of a Statutory native, the decision then arrived at must be regarded as final,

(2) All persons who have subsequent to the promulgation of the orders of the 18th April 1879, above referred to, been admitted to Government service without the special sanction of the Government of India under circumstances which would have necessitated such sanction had they not been regarded as Statutory natives, must be deemed personally ineligible for exchange compensation allowance.

5 The case of men entering the Government service subsequent to the issue of the exchange compensation allowance rules promulgated with this Department's Resolution of 31st May 1897, No 2422 Ex, is governed by No IV of those rules, which requires, as a condition of eligibility for exchange compensation allowance, the grant of a certificate which must be withheld from any one who is qualified for appointment under 33 Viet, cap 3, section 6. In determining whether a certificate should be withheld on this ground, Local Governments will bear in mind the principles enunciated in paragraphs 3 and 4 of the present Resolution.

6 Cases already referred to the Government of India and now pending will be disposed of by them, but all other cases should be dealt with by Local Governments under the above instructions. In any case coming before it, which the Local Government considers doubtful either in regard to the personal or the official eligibility of the claimant, reference will be made direct to the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department. It is hoped, however, that the present instructions will greatly diminish the number of such references.

7 Where a Local Government has decided that an officer is not a Statutory native for the purposes of the new exchange compensation allowance rules and does not consider a reference to the Government of India to be required, audit officers will accept the decision as final.

8. Departments of the Government of India other than the Financial Department will exercise the powers of Local Governments under the Resolution in the case of officers serving directly under them.

ORDER.—Ordered, that the foregoing Resolution be published in the *Gazette of India*, and that it be circulated to all Local Governments and Administrations; to Departments of the Government of India; to the Private Secretary to His Excellency the Viceroy; to Heads of Departments subordinate to the Financial Department; to the Comptroller and Auditor General; and to all Accountants General and Comptrollers.

By order,

W. S. MEYER,

Depy. Secy. to the Govt. of India.

Letter No. 3457-E, dated Simla, the 31st July 1899, from W. S. Meyer, Esq., Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue.

In continuation of the Resolution of this Department, No. 2418-Ex., dated the 26th May 1899, I am directed to forward a memorandum showing the principles which the Government of India have decided should be followed in dealing with claims to exchange compensation allowance.

2. I am to request that, questions of personal eligibility for the allowance may be decided in accordance with the practical considerations indicated in the memorandum and not with reference to legal technicalities which it was the purpose of the Resolution of 26th May 1899 to put aside.

3. As regards claims to arrears in respect of any period prior to 1st April 1897, I am to say that if there are any such claims pending in your office which seem to you to be admissible in accordance with the principles now prescribed for the treatment of such cases in clauses VI and VII of the memorandum, these claims should at once be forwarded to the Government of India for consideration. Arrear claims which are clearly ineligible with reference to clause VII of the memorandum can be rejected by you without further reference.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES TO BE FOLLOWED IN DEALING WITH CLAIMS TO EXCHANGE COMPENSATION ALLOWANCE.

I. "*Domicile*" for the purpose of Clause (a) at end of paragraph 3 of Resolution by the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department, No. 2418-Ex., dated the 26th May 1899, means applicant's permanent residence at the time he entered Government service. A person who had been continuously in India up to that date, or had been absent from it only up to or before the age of 10, is held to have a practical Indian domicile. If he was in Europe for any appreciable time (*i.e.*, not less than a year) subsequent to the age of 10 and before entering Government service, this may be held to establish a non-Indian domicile,

II *Permanent or temporary residence of parents in India*, for the purpose of Clause (b) of the same paragraph, is determined by the following considerations —

- (1) If the father left India for good after retirement from Government service, or the exercise of a private profession there, he was a *temporary* resident
- (2) If he remained on in India for any considerable period under the same circumstances, a *permanent* resident
- (3) If he died in Government service, or in the exercise of a private profession, permanent or temporary connection of the family with India is evidenced by—
 - (a) Widow (if any) returning home or children having been sent home while under parental control—*temporary*
 - (b) Widow (if any) remaining here or children not having been sent home, *permanent*

III A man is *not a statutory native* for the purposes of the new rules only if he fulfils one or more of the following conditions* —

* See definition of statutory native in paragraph 4 of Finance Department's Resolution of 31st May 1897, No 2422
Lx

Birth	(a) Born out of India
Personal non-Indian domicile	(b) Was out of India for some appreciable period (not less than a year) after the age of ten and before he entered Government service
Parents not permanent residents	(c) Father had no connection or only a temporary connection with India. Whether the father's connection was temporary or permanent is determined by the considerations mentioned in Clause II

IV But *arrear claims* (i.e., claims for periods prior to the application of the new rules) are admissible to persons who are not statutory natives only if the applicant has a personal non-Indian domicile as stated in Clause I above. Thus he may be admissible under the new rules as having been born out of India or by reason of his father not having been a permanent resident, but if he himself had not left India between the age of 10 and his entry into Government service, he will not be admitted under the old rules.

V What has to be considered in dealing with claims to exchange compensation allowance is the *status* of the applicant in regard to 'domicile' at the actual time when he enters Government service, consequently, a man's visits to England *after* he entered Government service are irrelevant for the purpose of establishing personal eligibility, as also the fact that after that date he married in England or sent his children home.

VI. The *pending cases* in regard to which it has been decided by the Government of India that claims to the allowance prior to 1st April 1897 can now alone be entertained, are :—

(1) Cases under the old rules which had come up to the Government of India on appeal or reference prior to 31st May 1897, the date on which the new rules were promulgated, and were on that date still undisposed of.

(2) Cases in which either a first claim, or an appeal against disallowal, was presented by the applicant prior to 31st May 1897 and was held over, undisposed of, by a Local Government or Head of Department.

VII (1).—In 'pending cases,' as above defined, admission under the new rules will qualify for arrears prior to 1st April 1897, if the applicant fulfils the conditions of Clause IV, but not otherwise.

(2) When the cases are not 'pending' as above defined no arrears for a period prior to 1st April 1897 can in any case be given.

Letter No. 3767-Ex., dated 16th August 1899, from W. S. Meyer, Esq., Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Revenue and Financial Secretary to the Government of the Punjab.

The attention of the Government of India has been drawn to your letter* to the

* Recorded as No. 3 in the Punjab Inspector-General of Police, Punjab, No. 1076, Financial Pros., Nos. 1-3 for June 1899. dated the 2nd June 1899, declaring Mr. _____ entitled to exchange compensation allowance.

2. When passing this order the Punjab Government was doubtless unaware of the fact that in January 1898, Mr. _____ applied for, and obtained, permission to compete for the Enrolled List of this Department as a statutory native—vide copies of his letters of 3rd and 10th January 1898 enclosed. Under these circumstances Mr. _____ is personally ineligible for exchange compensation allowance under paragraph 4 (1) of this Department's Resolution of 26th May 1899, No. 2418-Ex., and I am accordingly to request that the order admitting him thereto may now be withdrawn.

Letter No. 918-S., dated 28th August 1899, from M. W. Fenton, Esq., Revenue and Financial Secretary to the Government of the Punjab, to the Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department.

In acknowledging the receipt of your letter No. 3767-Ex., dated 16th August 1899, in which it is pointed out that Mr. _____

is personally ineligible for exchange compensation allowance, having in a previous correspondence with the Government of India, claimed to be a statutory native of India, I am directed to say that, as surmised by the Government of India, this Government was unaware of the fact now brought to its notice. But at the same time I am to enquire

whether, with reference to paragraph III (b) of the General Principles laid down in Government of India, Financial Department No 3457-Ex, dated 31st July 1899, Mr _____ is not entitled to be considered as *not* a statutory native of India for the purposes of the new rules

Letter No 4152-F, dated Simla, the 7th September 1899, from W S Meyer, Esq, Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Revenue and Financial Secretary to the Government of the Punjab

I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your letter No 918-S, dated the 28th August 1899, enquiring whether, with reference to paragraph III (b) of the "General Principles" laid down in the memorandum forwarded with the letter from this Department, No 3457-Ex, dated the 31st July 1899, Mr _____ is not entitled to be considered as *not* a statutory native of India for the purposes of new rules for the grant of exchange compensation allowance

2 In reply I am to say that the "General Principles" are intended to facilitate the testing of personal eligibility claims with reference to paragraph 3 of the Resolution in this Department, No 2418-Ex, dated the 26th May 1899 and do not override paragraph 4 of that Resolution which is intended to estop a person who has obtained, or tried to obtain, an appointment or concession as a statutory native of India from obtaining a subsequent advantage on the ground that he is not one

Letter No 6709-F, dated 18th December 1899, from E N Baker, Esq, C S, Offg Secretary to the Government of Bengal, Financial Department, to the Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department

A difficulty has recently arisen as regards the interpretation of the "General Principles to be followed in dealing with claims to exchange compensation allowance," of which a copy was forwarded with your letter No 3457-E, dated the 31st July 1899

2 Under Clause III (b) of those principles, a man is not a statutory native for the purposes of the new rules if he was out of India for some appreciable period (not less than a year) after the age of ten and before he entered Government service. If this definition is taken to be an absolute one, as, on the face of it, it appears to be, the result is practically to nullify the definition of a statutory native as given in paragraph 4 of Finance and Commerce Department Resolution of 31st May 1897

3 The following three cases, which have recently come under the consideration of this Government, may be mentioned as instances —

A—Is a Eurasian, born in India of parents habitually resident in India. He was educated in India and graduated at the Calcutta University. He then went to England, completed his education there, and was appointed to the Indian Civil Service

B—Is the son of a European father and an Armenian mother, both of whom were born and permanently resident in India. He himself was born in India and went to England at the age of fifteen, where he remained for

seven years for education. He was appointed in England to the Public Works Department.

C—Is a Eurasian, whose father was born in England, came to India in 1856, married a native of India and has since settled in India in a private capacity, making occasional visits to England. C was born in India, went to England at the age of eighteen, and remained there for four years, being appointed to the Public Works Department from Cooper's Hill.

4. All these officers would clearly have been eligible without special sanction, for appointments reserved for statutory natives under the orders of the Government of India in the Home Department, dated 18th April 1879, No. 21—746-53. Each of them was appointed in England, and their cases are, therefore, governed by paragraph 2 of letter No. 1271-Ex., from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, dated 18th March 1898. In each case, it seems beyond doubt that, apart from Clause III (b) of the General Principles, the person concerned is a statutory native of India. Had any of them obtained, or tried to obtain, an appointment or concession as a statutory native of India, he would be debarred from exchange compensation allowance under the orders contained in letter No. 4152-E., from the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, dated 7th September 1899. But to provide for these and other cases where the persons concerned have not done so, an authoritative ruling is required.

5. The view of the question taken by the Lieutenant-Governor is that when a person clearly falls within the well-known definition of a statutory native, he is debarred, on personal grounds, from receiving exchange compensation allowance, and that it is only in cases where there is any doubt whether he falls within the definition or not, that the general principles should be called in to decide the question. If the general principles are to be regarded as a primary and not a subsidiary test, the result will be that an officer may (as in the cases above quoted) both be a statutory native and eligible as such for the reserved appointments under the orders of 1879, and also be not a statutory native for purposes of exchange compensation allowance. It is doubtful whether this was intended by the Government of India, and I am, therefore, to request that a decision may be given on the question.

Letter No. 340-E., dated Calcutta, the 29th January 1900, from W. S. Meyer, Esq., Deputy Secretary to the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department, to the Secretary to the Government of Bengal, Financial Department.

I am directed to reply as follows to the question raised in your letter of 18th December 1899, No. 6709-F.

2. In this Department's Resolution of 26th May 1899, No. 2418-Ex., the following instructions were laid down (with reference to paragraph 4 of the Resolution of 31st May 1897 promulgating the new exchange compensation allowance rules) as regards *personal* eligibility to exchange compensation allowance in the case of officers appointed in India.

(1) Such an officer if born in India and apparently a person who might have obtained admission to the posts ordinarily reserved for 'Natives of India' by the order

of 1879, was to be deemed *prima facie* personally ineligible for exchange compensation allowance

(2) But he might rebut that presumption by showing *fully and clearly* (otherwise his claim fails) —

- (a) That he was not domiciled in India at the time of his first appointment in Government service, or
- (b) That his parents were only temporarily resident in this country
- (3) In any case the disposal of personal eligibility claims is subject to the following provisions set forth in paragraph 4 of the Resolution
- (a) In all cases in which the question whether or not the officer concerned is a 'statutory native' has already been raised in connection with some claim of his to the privileges of a statutory native, the decision then arrived at must be regarded as final
- (b) All persons who have subsequent to the promulgation of the orders of the 18th April 1879, above referred to, been admitted to Government service without the special sanction of the Government of India under circumstances which would have necessitated such sanction had they not been regarded as statutory natives, must be deemed personally ineligible for exchange compensation allowance

Your letter raises the question to what extent these orders are to be considered as modified by the "General Principles" issued under my letter No 8457-E, dated 31st July 1899

3 The answer is that the General Principles affect the orders above referred to to this extent, that a rebuttal of the presumption in (1) will be accepted as satisfactory if it fully satisfies the test laid down in clause III of the General Principles. But such rebuttal will, as observed in my letter No 4152 E, dated 7th September 1899, be still subject to a possible disqualification of the candidate under paragraph 4 of the Resolution of 26th May 1899 [No (3) *supra*]

4 As regards persons appointed in *England* personal eligibility is governed by the orders conveyed and referred to in my letters of 18th March 1898, No 1271, and 24th April 1899, No 1693. That is—

- (1) Persons of pure non European descent or whose non-European ancestry is on the father's side are absolutely disqualified
- (2) Pure Europeans are eligible
- (3) Eurasians, that is officers who are of European descent on the father's side, are *prima facie* eligible, but may be debarred when it seems clear that they are statutory natives

When this last question arises the point must be tested in the same way as in the case of officers appointed in India, *i.e.*, by the General Principles subject to possible disqualification under paragraph 4 of the Resolution of 26th May 1899

5 You justly point out that the result of these orders will be that an officer who might have applied (but did not) for appointment as a statutory native may nevertheless obtain exchange compensation allowance under the 'General Principles' if he holds an appointment which qualifies for the allowance. The Government of India admit

the theoretical anomaly ; but consider that it would not be expedient to remedy it in the manner suggested in your letter, *i.e.*, by applying the General Principles only in cases of doubt and debarring any person "who clearly falls under the well known definition of a statutory native." This definition is unhappily extremely vague, and the consequences of applying it in exchange compensation allowance cases were widely discrepant admissions and rejections by different Local Governments and Departments, and constant references on appeal or otherwise to the Government of India. The object of the General Principles is, at some possible sacrifice of logical consistency, to put an end to these constant differences of opinion by prescribing a fairly satisfactory test which can be acted on with certainty as soon as the relevant facts have been ascertained.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 2 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following orders of the Government of India, regarding the vindication of the official reputation of Government officers, are published for information and guidance.

2 Without obtaining the authorization of the Government of India in the Finance Department, no officer of the Department is permitted to have recourse to the Courts for the vindication of his public acts, or of his character as a public functionary, from defamatory attacks, and without the same authorization, no officer of the Department is permitted to communicate with the public press in respect of his official conduct or acts.

R. M DANE,
Commissioner.

Letter No ^{30-Public}₁₈₇₈₋₁₈₈₅, dated Simla, the 5th September 1890 from C J. Lyall, Esq, C I E, Offg. Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department, to all Local Governments and Administrations

In a General Order of the Government of India in the Foreign Department, dated the 15th March 1847, it was laid down that a Government officer is at liberty, if his public conduct in the transaction of his official duties is impugned, "to seek redress through the usual official channel by an appeal to the Government he serves, and that the Government so appealed to will afford him every opportunity of vindicating his character" Though the matter has since that date been dealt with in a confidential paper, no subsequent orders regulating the course to be followed by Government officers for the vindication of their acts as public functionaries have been generally circulated, and the result is that the practice in this respect is not uniform in all provinces. The Governor General in Council therefore deems it desirable to prescribe the procedure which should be generally observed in future. I am accordingly to convey the following instructions with the request that their purport may be conveyed to the officers serving in the different branches of the administration in

2 It is a standing order that without obtaining the authorization of the Government to which he is immediately subordinate, no officer of Government is permitted to have recourse to the courts for the vindication of his public acts, or of his character as a public functionary, from defamatory attacks. In giving authority to institute proceedings, the Local Government concerned will decide whether the circumstances of the case are such that the Government should bear the costs of the proceedings, civil or criminal, or leave the officer to institute the prosecution or suit at his own expense, and in the latter case it will also determine, in the event of the matter being decided by the courts in the officer's favour, whether he should be recouped by Government the whole or any part of the costs of the action.

3 I am to explain that the ruling above laid down does not affect an officer's right to defend his private dealings or behaviour in any way that he may be advised;

BOOK CIRCULAR No 3 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following orders of the Secretary of State for India, on the subject of the public criticism of Government policy by Government servants, are published for the information and guidance of all officers in the Department.

R. M. DANE,

Commissioner.

Circular letters Nos 2300-2309 (Public), dated Simla, the 16th November 1898, from H. Luson, Esq., Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department.

I am directed to forward a copy of a despatch No 144, dated the 6th October last, from Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, on the subject of the public criticism of Government policy by Government servants, and to request that (with the permission of His Excellency in Council
His Honour the Lieutenant Governor and Chief Commissioner) it may be circulated for the guidance of all Government servants

INDIA OFFICE,

London, 6th October 1898

Public,

No 144

To His Excellency the Right Honourable the Governor General of India in Council

MY LORD,

I have received your letter of the 14th July, with enclosures, relating to a speech delivered by Mr Thorburn, Financial Commissioner of the Punjab, at Simla, on the 25th of June

2 It appears that on that day a paper was read in connection with the United Service Institution on the subject of the Tirah Campaign, and that, in the discussion which followed, Mr Thorburn took the opportunity of making what is said to have conveyed the impression of being "an attack of a deliberate and somewhat violent character on the policy and proceedings of the Government."

3 It is not surprising that this action on the part of Mr Thorburn should at once have attracted the serious notice of his official superiors, or that he should have found it necessary, within eight days of the delivery of the speech, to express his deep regret for his conduct. This apology your Government thought well to accept, and your acceptance was communicated to him through the Government of the Punjab in a letter dated the 12th of July

4 In these circumstances I have no intention of commenting on this particular incident, so far as it affects Mr Thorburn individually. But I think it right, while fully recognizing that every officer is entitled to form and to hold his own opinion on public matters, to record my entire agreement with Sir Mackworth Young's statement of the rules which must govern the conduct of

Government servants in India. It should be distinctly understood that (to use his words) "a member of the Government service is not at liberty to make an attack upon what he knows or believes to be the policy or procedure deliberately approved by the Government," and that "it is no justification of such attack that he is actuated by conscientious motives or has a strong conviction of the correctness of his own judgment." I will add, further, that it is improper for any officer to convey to the public, whether in writing, or in a speech or otherwise, any opinion upon matters of Government policy which are, or are likely to become, the subject of public discussion. It is, of course, inevitable that cases must from time to time occur in which the decisions of Government do not commend themselves to the officers who may have to carry them out. On such occasion the officers in question, after making proper representations to their official superiors, have only two courses open to them, namely, either to acquiesce loyally and silently in the decision of the responsible authorities, or to resign their positions in the service.

5. I am glad to have had of late more than one opportunity of stating publicly my high appreciation of the loyalty and self-devotion of the Indian Civil Service. Those qualities have never been more conspicuous than during recent years of difficult and anxious labour. But a clear understanding that the rules to which I have referred are in existence, and will be strictly enforced, can only tend to increase the efficiency of that service; and I request that Your Excellency will take such steps as may seem to you advisable to make my views generally known, and to ensure that improprieties, such as that which you have on this occasion thought fit to condone, shall not be repeated in future.

I have the honour to be,

MY LORD,

Your Lordship's most obedient, humble servant,

GEORGE HAMILTON.

Resolution No. 5297-Gl., dated Calcutta, the 30th November 1898, of the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department.

READ—

Circular letter from the Government of India in the Home Department, Nos. 2300-2309, dated the 16th November 1898.

Ordered that a copy of this letter and enclosure be forwarded to the Director General of the Post Office of India; to the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue; to the Mint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay; to the Assay Masters, Calcutta and Bombay; to the Comptroller and Auditor-General; to all Accountants General and Comptrollers; and to the Superintendent of Government Printing, India, for information.

H. WHEELER,

Offg. Under Secretary to the Government of India.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 4 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3 d January 1902

The following rules made by the Government of India, to regulate the attitude of officers in the service of Government towards political or quasi-political movements with which they may be brought in contact, are published for information and observance

R M DANE,

Commissioner.

Home Department, No 679—88-II (Public), dated Calcutta, the 18th March 1890, from C J Lyall, Esq, C I E, Officiating Secretary to the Government of India, to .

I am directed to say that the Governor General in Council has had under consideration the attitude which should be maintained by officers in the service of Government towards political or quasi-political movements with which they may be brought in contact. Servants of Government have not the same liberty of action as private individuals, and are bound to hold themselves aloof from many movements which are perfectly legitimate in themselves, and which private persons are free to promote. Their participation in such movements is open to objection, because their connection with them is likely to create, and even to be appealed to for the purpose of creating, a false impression in the minds of ignorant persons that such movements have the countenance of Government, and because their influence with the community at large is liable to be impaired by their identifying themselves with the class by which the movement is promoted.

2 For these reasons His Excellency in Council desires that the following rules may be observed by all Government servants —

- (a) As a general rule no officer of Government should attend at a political meeting where the fact of his presence is likely to be misconstrued or to impair his usefulness as an official.
- (b) No officer of Government may take part in the proceedings of a political meeting, or in organizing or promoting a political meeting, or agitation.
- (c) If in any case an officer is in doubt whether any action which he proposes to take would contravene the terms of this order, the matter should be referred to the Head of the Department or District, and if necessary to the Local Government or Administration.

No 690 II

• Foreign	Public Works Revenue and Agricultural Legislative
Finance	
Military	

Copy forwarded to the Department* for information

By order,

C CUTHBERTSON,

Offg Under Secy to the Govt of India.

Resolution No. 1390, dated Calcutta, the 25th March 1890, of the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department.

Copy forwarded to the Comptroller and Auditor General; all Accountants General and Comptrollers; the Mint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay; Director General of the Post Office of India; Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue; and to the Superintendent, Government Printing, India, for information.

By order, &c.,

E. LAWRENCE,

Under-Secretary to the Government of India.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 5 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following orders of the Government of India, on the subject of applications by servants of Government to Native Chiefs for pecuniary contributions towards public objects, are published for information

R M DAVE,
Commissioner

Extract from the Proceedings of the Government of India in the Home Department, (Public),—under date Simla, No 31, the 11th July 1885

Resolution

It has recently been brought to the notice of the Government of India that no rule exists regulating the circumstances under which officers of Government may apply to Native Chiefs for pecuniary contributions towards public objects. As it is for many reasons undesirable that such applications should be made except with the permission of superior authority, the Governor General in Council is pleased to direct that in future no officer of Government shall ask or accept pecuniary aid or subscriptions from Native Chiefs or officials of Native States in pursuance of public objects, except with the sanction previously obtained of the Local Government to which he may be subordinate

Copy of No 1866, dated 29th October 1885, from the Secretary to Government of India, Home Department, to the Chief Secretary to Government, Madras

I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your letter No 2286 Miscellaneous, dated the 28th ultimo, enquiring (1) whether the ruling contained in Home Department Resolution of the 11th July 1845, that no officer of Government should ask or accept pecuniary aid or subscriptions from Native Chiefs, or officials of Native States, in pursuance of public objects, without the previous sanction of the Local Government, is intended to apply to Local and Municipal Boards, and (2) whether the term "Native Chiefs" as used in the Resolution includes ordinary zamindars

2 In reply, I am to say that the orders contained in the Resolution cited were intended to apply to officers of Government acting in their individual capacity and not to Local and Municipal Boards. I am to add that there appears to the Government of India to be no reason why Local or Municipal Boards should not invite the assistance of local zamindars towards public objects

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 6 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following orders of the Government of India, on the subject of the receipt of presents from Native Chiefs and other natives of India, are published for information.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

Extracts from a circular of the Foreign Department, No. 1299-G., dated 20th June 1876, on the subject of receipt of presents :—

- “ I. The main provisions of the law on the subject are contained (see appendix) in 13, Geo. III, Chapter 63, section 24 ; 33, Geo. III, Chapter 52, sections 62-63.
- “ II. The prohibition of the receipt of presents from native chiefs and others does not extend to the receipt of a few flowers or fruits and articles of inappreciable value, although even such trifling present should be discouraged.
- “ V. The general prohibition extends to all servants of Government, native or European, covenanted or uncovenanted, in whatsoever department they may be serving.
- “ VI. Where presents cannot absolutely be refused without giving offence, they must be delivered up to Government, and to this rule no exception whatsoever is permissible save with the express sanction of His Excellency the Governor General in Council, which will only be given under very special circumstances.
- “ 2. The Governor General in Council desires that the above rules may be strictly observed and no deviation therefrom permitted, except with the previous sanction of the Government of India.”

APPENDIX.

Extract 13, Geo. III, Chapter 63, Section 24.

“ XXIV. And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, that from and

after the first day of August one thousand seven hundred and seventy-four, no person holding or exercising

No person holding a civil or military office under the Crown or Company shall accept any donation or gratuity.

any civil or military office under the Crown, or the said United Company in the East Indies, shall accept, receive or take, directly or indirectly, by himself, or any other person or persons, on his behalf, or for his use or benefit, of and from any of the Indian princes or powers, or their ministers or agents (or any of the natives of Asia) any present, gift, donation, gratuity, or reward, pecuniary or otherwise, upon any account, or on any pretence whatsoever, or any promise or engagement for any present, gift, donation, gratuity, or reward.

Extract from the Proceedings of the Government of India in the Home Department (Medical), Nos. 14-447 to 464, dated Simla, the 25th October 1884.

Read the undermentioned papers —

- Home Department Circular letter to Local Governments and others, Nos. 3986 to 3996, dated the 31st August 1869
 Home Department letter to the Government of the Punjab, No. 639, dated 12th October 1875
 Home Department letter to the Surgeon General, Indian Medical Department, No. 425, dated 27th July 1876
 Home Department Resolution Nos. 13 632 to 639, dated 18th December 1879
 Military Department letter to the Surgeon General, Her Majesty's Forces, No. 689 S C, dated 23rd August 1883
 Military Department letter to the Inspector General of Military Works, No. 83-C, dated 25th January 1884
 Letter from Director General of Ordnance, to the Military Department, No. 159 E, dated 14th April 1884.

Resolution

The papers read above relate to medical attendance on, and supply of medicines to, Government clerks and their families. Doubts having arisen as to the application of these orders in the case of certain offices, the Governor General in Council is pleased to prescribe the following rules in supersession of all previous orders on the subject, with effect from the 1st January 1885 —

- (1) All clerks of all Government offices are entitled to gratuitous medical attendance and medicines for themselves
- (2) All clerks of Army Headquarters Offices are entitled to similar privileges for themselves and their families.
- (3) Subject to the above rules, clerks drawing Rs 250 per mensem and upwards are entitled to the services of the Civil Surgeon, and those drawing less than that amount to the services of the Assistant Surgeon or medical subordinate provided for the purpose, it being understood that in conformity with paragraph 4 of circular letter, dated 31st August 1869, above quoted, the attendance of the Civil Surgeon should be given in all cases of emergency or of great danger or difficulty, when applied for by the subordinate medical attendant.

ORDER.—Ordered, that a copy of this Resolution be forwarded to the Local Governments and Administrations noted in the margin for information and guidance. In places where there is no druggist's shop, medicines may continue to be supplied from the Government Stores, that a copy be forwarded to the Governments of Madras and Bombay for information; and that a copy be forwarded to all the other Departments of the Government of India and to the Surgeon-General with the Government of India for information.

Ordered, also, that the Resolution be published in the Supplement to the *Gazette of India* for general information.

A MACKENZIE,

Secretary to the G

In

The order of August 1881 which substituted a salary of Rs. 250 for the fact of being a gazetted officer as the criterion of attendance by the Civil Surgeon, though not among the papers read in the preamble, was virtually incorporated by reference in clause (3) of the Resolution of October 1884, which dealt specially with the case of Government clerks, and in February 1885 it was declared that these orders did not apply to Calcutta either as regards medical attendance or the supply of medicines.

4. The orders at present in force on the subject, which merely affirm the practice which has been consistently followed in Calcutta for at least 35 years, have, therefore, as already explained, the effect that non-gazetted uncovenanted servants at the Presidency town have no claim to gratuitous medical attendance. The Governor General in Council is, moreover, of opinion that the great majority of clerks in Calcutta would gain no material advantage by being given this concession. It is understood that those of them who are married usually enter into a contract with one of the numerous private practitioners settled in Calcutta for attendance on their families; that such a contract includes attendance on the clerk himself as well as the members of his family, should he require it; and that were he excluded the amount payable under such contract would remain the same, or at all events not be reduced to any appreciable extent. As regards unmarried clerks, who are comparatively few in number, it is well known that they can obtain medical advice, in many cases of a high order, gratis at any of the large private dispensaries at Calcutta, the only charge being that for medicines supplied; while if they choose to attend personally, either as indoor or outdoor patients at the Medical College or Mayo Hospitals (including the branches of the latter), they can obtain both advice and medicines gratuitously. Having regard, therefore, to the fact that the rules now in force do not provide for free medical attendance on uncovenanted servants in Calcutta whose appointments are not gazetted, and that, even if the privilege were now conceded, the greater number of them would not be benefited to any extent commensurate with the increase of medical establishments and extra expenditure which would be necessitated by the change, the Governor General in Council has, after very careful consideration, arrived at the conclusion that it is not expedient to extend the standing orders, under which gazetted officers alone are entitled in Calcutta to the free services of the Civil or Presidency Surgeon. I am accordingly to say that, unless His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor sees special reason for doing so, His Excellency in Council proposes not to re-open the question. I am to request that, with His Honour's permission, the effect of the existing orders on the subject of medical attendance on clerks may be clearly explained to all Heads of Offices under the Government of Bengal at Calcutta.

Letter No. 5509-Ex., dated Simla, the 31st October 1901, from H. Heseltine, Esq., Assistant Secretary to the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department, to the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue Department.

In reply to your letter No. 2623, dated the 11th September 1900, I am directed to say that the Civil Surgeon of the Kangra District was not entitled to the fee of Rs. 32 claimed by him for medically attending Mr. McMullen, Superintendent, Salt Depart-

ment at Palampur, but that he may draw travelling allowance for the journey from Dharmsala to Palampur and back.

Copy forwarded to the Comptroller, India Treasuries.

NOTE.—*Mr. McMullen was stationed at the Mandi mines. He was taken ill there and was removed to Palampur, and while at Palampur was attended, at his express request, by the Civil Surgeon of the Kangra District.*

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 19 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following orders of the Government of India, regarding the destruction of bedding, clothing, etc., calculated to cause infection; are published for information and guidance.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

No. $\frac{5}{122-31}$, dated 28th April 1896, from the Secretary to the Government of India,
Home Department, to Local Governments and Administrations.

A case having recently occurred in which compensation was claimed for the destruction by order of a Government Medical Officer of the bedding, clothing, &c., belonging to certain individuals who occupied quarters in which a man had died of cholera, the Governor General in Council considers it desirable, in order to prevent the unnecessary destruction of property and the submission of claims for compensation, that some definite instructions should be laid down for the guidance of officers in such cases. His Excellency in Council is accordingly pleased to direct that the procedure prescribed for adoption

* Numbers of 56 and 57. among European troops, as given in the rules* appended to this circular, shall, with the addition of the foot-note, in future be carefully observed.

2. It should be impressed upon all Government officers that if destruction of property is ordered as calculated to cause infection, and enquiry subsequently shows in any particular case that such destruction was not absolutely necessary, but that purification would have sufficed, the officer ordering such destruction must be held responsible for the loss occasioned thereby to the owners of the property.

APPENDIX.

Purification of bedding and clothing.

56. The straw of the barrack bedding used by persons attacked prior to admission into hospital will be burnt. The stuffing of mattresses and pillows used by cholera patients in hospital will be opened out, exposed to the air and beaten, and when practicable, submitted to a dry heat of not less than 250 Fahrenheit for at least an hour (in an oven or otherwise†) before being used again; the remainder of the barrack and hospital bedding, clothing, &c., and such of the clothing worn by patients on their admission as is not liable to injury thereby, shall be boiled, exposed to the air, beaten and afterwards washed with soap and water.

Cots and punkah fringes which have been used by cholera patients, or in wards set apart for them, should also be subjected to the action of boiling water when they are no longer required for such cases.

† Or if means are not at hand to enable this, it should be boiled.

Such articles of a soldier's kit as cannot be treated in the above manner will be removed to hospital and there fumigated and exposed to the air and sun for a week, beaten and brushed.

Burning only to be resorted to when purification cannot be at once carried out.

57. When circumstances are such that the above processes of purification cannot be at once carried out, such articles as body linen, bedding, coats and punkah fringes may be burnt ; but with proper arrangements the necessity for this destruction will rarely arise.

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 20 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, 3rd January 1902.

The following orders of the Government of India, relating to the system of identification of pensioners by means of thumb impressions, are published for general information and guidance.

2. Particular attention is directed to rules 1, 2, 8 and 15. When it is impracticable to obtain the impression of the thumb of an applicant for pension upon the first page of his application without great delay and trouble, the impression may be taken upon a separate slip of paper which should subsequently be pasted upon the first page of the application.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

Resolution No. 4294-P., dated Simla, the 1st October 1898, of the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department.

READ—

Letters in the Finance and Commerce Department, to the Comptroller and Auditor General, No. 5862-P and to the Government of Bengal, No. 5863-P., dated 20th December 1895, proposing the experimental introduction into Lower Bengal for the purpose of identifying Government pensioners, of Sir William Herschel's system of identification by finger impressions.

Letter from the Comptroller and Auditor General, No. 2053, dated 12th January 1898, reporting upon the working of the system for one year in Lower Bengal, and suggesting the general introduction of the system for the purpose of identifying Government pensioners.

OBSERVATIONS.

The system of identification by finger impressions had already been in use in Bengal to some extent in connection with the registration of documents and the identification of criminals, when in December 1895, the Government of India proposed that, with the concurrence of the Local Government, it should be introduced as an experimental measure throughout that province for the purpose of identifying Government pensioners. The Government of Bengal accepted this suggestion, and rules were framed and the system actually introduced at all treasuries in the province in November 1896. The Government of India have now received the reports of a full year's working, and are gratified to find that the system has already achieved such a measure of success as justifies its extension to other provinces. It is found that, with the exercise of a little care the system is easy to work, the chief difficulty experienced at first—that of obtaining distinct impressions—being one that disappears with practice; that in all but exceptional cases it is accepted by the payees without demur; and that it affords a sound and easily applied check against fraudulent personation. The reports show that at several places there is an inclination to abandon the check, on the ground that the pensioners are few and are locally known to the Treasury officials. This, however, indicates some misapprehension. The great value of the scheme lies in the fact that it secures a permanent record of identification, which is independent of the personal knowledge of

individual Treasury officials. Whether these officials use the impression or do not use it as an actual means of identification, the record of the mark should be carefully preserved, because it is by this means alone that it can be discovered whether, within a considerable period of time, there has been no change of identity.

Resolution

The Governor General in Council desires to recommend to all Local Governments and Administrations the adoption of this system as a permanent measure for the identification of pensioners in the Civil Department in British India generally. Rules for the identification of such pensioners, which are in force in Bengal, are annexed, together with a copy of the letter from the Comptroller and Auditor General, dated 12th January 1898, read in the preamble, and its enclosure

ORDER — Ordered, that a copy of this Resolution be forwarded to all Local Governments and Administrations, to the Departments of the Government of India (except the Home Department), to all Heads of Departments subordinate to this Department, and to all Accountants General and Comptrollers

Ordered, also, that a copy be forwarded to the Home Department, with reference to the endorsement from that Department, No 288, dated 15th June 1898

J B BRUNYATE,

Under Secretary to the Government of India.

Rules for the identification of pensioners by means of thumb impressions.

1. All applicants for service pensions, with the exception of those hereinafter mentioned in rule 10, shall, at the time of preparation of their applications for pension, make, before the head of the office, in the first page of their application for pension in the space provided therein for the purpose an impression of the ball of the thumb of the left hand

2. An impression similar to that mentioned in rule 1 shall at the same time be taken on a slip of paper and shall be attached to the application for pension.

3 These impressions will be sent, together with the pension papers, to the officer reporting on the claim to pension and be forwarded by him to the authority who has to sanction the pension. They will thereafter be forwarded by the sanctioning authority to the officer who audits payments of the pension

4 The impression given on the application for pension will serve in the auditing office as a permanent record of the impression, while that given on the separate slip will be pasted on the Disbursing Officer's half of the Permanent Pay Order.

5. In the case of non-service pensioners, the thumb-impression shall be made on the Descriptive Roll in presence of the officer preparing the roll

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 20 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, 3rd January 1902.

The following orders of the Government of India, relating to the system of identification of pensioners by means of thumb impressions, are published for general information and guidance.

2. Particular attention is directed to rules 1, 2, 3 and 15. When it is impracticable to obtain the impression of the thumb of an applicant for pension upon the first page of his application without great delay and trouble, the impression may be taken upon a separate slip of paper which should subsequently be pasted upon the first page of the application.

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Commissioner.

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individual Treasury officials. Whether these officials use the impression or do not use it as an actual means of identification, the record of the mark should be carefully preserved, because it is by this means alone that it can be discovered whether, within a considerable period of time, there has been no change of identity

Resolution

The Governor General in Council desires to recommend to all Local Governments and Administrations the adoption of this system as a permanent measure for the identification of pensioners in the Civil Department in British India generally. Rules for the identification of such pensioners, which are in force in Bengal, are annexed, together with a copy of the letter from the Comptroller and Auditor General, dated 12th January 1898, read in the preamble, and its enclosure

ORDER — Ordered, that a copy of this Resolution be forwarded to all Local Governments and Administrations, to the Departments of the Government of India (except the Home Department), to all Heads of Departments subordinate to this Department, and to all Accountants General and Comptrollers

Ordered, also, that a copy be forwarded to the Home Department, with reference to the endorsement from that Department, No 288, dated 15th June 1898

J B BRUNYATE,

Under Secretary to the Government of India

Rules for the identification of pensioners by means of thumb-impressions.

1 All applicants for service pensions, with the exception of those hereinafter mentioned in rule 10, shall, at the time of preparation of their applications for pension, make, before the head of the office, in the first page of their application for pension in the space provided therein for the purpose an impression of the ball of the thumb of the left hand

2 An impression similar to that mentioned in rule 1 shall at the same time be taken on a slip of paper and shall be attached to the application for pension.

3 These impressions will be sent, together with the pension papers, to the officer reporting on the claim to pension and be forwarded by him to the authority who has to sanction the pension. They will thereafter be forwarded by the sanctioning authority to the officer who audits payments of the pension

4 The impression given on the application for pension will serve in the auditing office as a permanent record of the impression, while that given on the separate slip will be pasted on the Disbursing Officer's half of the Permanent Pay Order

5 In the case of non-service pensioners, the thumb impression shall be made on the Descriptive Roll in presence of the officer preparing the roll

6. In the case of non-service pensioners an impression shall also be taken, by the officer preparing the Descriptive Roll, on a separate slip of paper, and this shall be sent together with the Roll to the auditing officer.

7. In the case of non-service pensioners, the impression given on the Descriptive Roll will form the auditing officer's permanent record, and that given on the slip will be pasted on the Disbursing Officer's half of the Permanent Pay Order in the space provided therein for the purpose.

8. The impression given on the separate slip will, in the case of both service and non-service pensions payable at the Presidency town of Calcutta be pasted against the appropriate number of the Register of Permanent Pay Orders.

9. On the first appearance of a pensioner on or after April 1st of each year the Disbursing Officer will, except in the cases of pensioners mentioned in rule 10, take an impression of the thumb of the pensioner's left hand on his pension bill, and besides identifying the pensioner from the other particulars given in the Disbursing Officer's half of the Permanent Pay Order or in the Audit Register (as the case may be), identify him from a comparison of the impression given on the bill with that pasted on the Permanent Pay Order or in the Audit Register, and in case of difference in the two impressions will refer the matter to the officer before whom the impression pasted in the Permanent Pay Order or in the Audit Register had been made.

10. Except Native Princes, European ladies, persons who have been gazetted officers, and those specially exempted by Government (these exceptions being made on the ground that there can be no difficulty in future identification), all pensioners shall be liable to the operation of these rules.

11. *Parda* ladies and illiterate pensioners shall give a thumb-impression on their bills before the person granting the life certificate, or in the case of illiterate pensioner who personally attend the paying office before the Disbursing Officer.

12. On the renewing of a Permanent Pay Order, the original impression shall be cut off from the old and attached to the new order.

13. Impressions should be taken in the following manner:—

A small quantity of ordinary printer's ink (which will be supplied by the Superintendent of Stationery, Calcutta), mixed with a very small quantity of sweet-oil, should be well rubbed with an India rubber roller on a tin slab until a very thin even layer is formed. The ball of the thumb of the left hand of the pensioner, after being wiped, should be laid on the inked slab and rolled from side to side (not rubbed) until sufficiently inked (this can be learnt from experience) and then lightly and carefully rolled on the paper on which the print is to be taken in such a way that the pattern of the whole of the ball of the thumb from side to side is clearly impressed on it. It must be specially borne in mind that any *side* movement, either at the time of applying or removing the thumb, will cause a smudge and spoil the impression.

14. In the case of pensioners now on the pension list, Disbursing Officers will, on the next occasion on which each pension is paid and after careful identification of

the pensioner, take his or her impression on the Permanent Pay Order or Audit Register

15 A thumb impression should also be taken in the service books of persons in service in the space for "Distinctive Marks" In all cases when an officer is sent for medical examination, the examining Medical Officer or Board should be asked to obtain the thumb-impression of the candidate for appointment, leave or pension on the medical certificate This last impression should afterwards be verified with that in the service-book by the head of the office

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 21 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following orders of the Government of India, on the subject of the dismissal, or removal from office, of public servants, are published for information and guidance.

2. The distinction drawn between the removal and the dismissal of a public servant should be carefully noted. Removal from office, for such a cause as unfitness for the duties of the office, does not bar reappointment to another office for the duties of which the person may be suited, and should not be accompanied by any subsidiary orders which would have the effect of prejudicing the person in question. Removal should be the penalty in all cases where it is not thought necessary to bar future re-employment under Government.

3. In cases of dismissal, on the other hand, the effect of the order precludes the dismissed officer from being re-employed without special sanction. Fraud, falsification of accounts, wilful neglect of duty and all offences involving moral disgrace, meet with their appropriate punishment in dismissal. The sanction of the Commissioner should invariably be obtained to the re-employment of any person who may have been dismissed.

4. In all cases of dismissal or removal of public servants, except in cases of such dismissal or removal in consequence of facts adjudicated at a judicial trial, or when persons have absconded with an accusation over their heads, the charges must be reduced to writing, the defence must be either taken in, or reduced to, writing, and the decision on the defence must also be in writing. These instructions must be strictly observed.

R. M. DANE,

Commissioner.

*Resolution No. $\frac{10\text{-Public}}{917-926}$, dated Simla, the 15th June 1895, from J. P. Hewett, Esq., C.I.E.,
Offg. Secretary to the Government of India, Home (Public) Department.*

In the Circular letter from this Department, No. $\frac{11\text{-Public}}{1085-1084}$, dated the 21st June 1894, the Government of India enquired what rule was observed with regard to giving Government officers necessary information as to dismissal of public servants; whether any difference was made between cases where re-employment is prohibited and where it is not: and whether in any case of dismissal, in which it is decided to issue a public notification, the cause which led to the dismissal is specified. The replies received to the letter of 21st June show that a uniform practice is not observed in the different provinces in dealing with this matter. The Governor General in Council accordingly deems it desirable to state the general principles which should be observed in disposing of such cases.

2 In the first place His Excellency in Council desires to direct attention to the distinction that exists between the removal or discharge, and the dismissal of a public servant. Removal from office for such a cause as unfitness for the duties of the office need not usually entail any further consequences. It ought not to bar re-appointment to another office for the duties of which the person may be suited, and it should not be accompanied by any subsidiary orders which would operate as such a bar or otherwise prejudice the person in question. Removal should be the penalty in all cases where it is not thought necessary to bar future re-employment under Government.

3 In cases of dismissal, on the other hand, the effect of the order should be to preclude the dismissed officer from being re-employed. Ordinary cases of the dismissal of non-gazetted officers need not be notified in the Government Gazette. As a precaution against the inadvertent re-employment of men who may have been dismissed, it would be sufficient to rule that officers should ascertain whether an applicant for a post has been in Government service before, and should refer to his previous employer if the circumstances connected with his discharge are not clear. The applicant should be required to produce a copy of his character-book or other record of service, and a person who succeeds in obtaining employment by the concealment of his antecedents would obviously merit dismissal on the true facts being discovered. The sanction of the Local Government or Administration should always be required to the re-employment of persons dismissed.

4 The dismissal of public servants should, the Governor General in Council considers, be notified in the Gazette only in the following cases, *viz*, (1) when it is necessary to notify the public of the removal from service of an officer, whether because his appointment was previously gazetted or from any other cause, and (2) when it is specially desired to exclude from re-employment in the service of Government a public servant who has been dismissed for a heinous offence, such as fraud or falsification of accounts.

5 The reasons for the dismissal of a public officer should not be stated in the notification regarding his dismissal, even in cases in which a conviction has been obtained in a criminal court. It will be sufficient to announce in the case of any person, whose dismissal will be notified in accordance with the principle laid down in paragraph 4 of this circular, that the Government has dispensed with his services, except in those cases in which the cause of dismissal constitutes a disqualification under the terms of the law regulating the tenure of a particular appointment, and it is for this reason necessary to couple with the announcement of the dismissal a statement of the grounds upon which it has been ordered.

6 The Government of India leave it to the Local Governments to make such arrangements as they think necessary for securing that officers serving under them are informed what Government servants, other than those whose dismissals have been gazetted, have been dismissed. There is not before the Government of India sufficient evidence to show that it is necessary to communicate such information between provinces, if the precautions above mentioned are taken by officers when making appointments to vacant posts.

No. .

Copy forwarded to the Foreign, Finance, Military, Public Works, Revenue and Agriculture and Legislative Departments, for information.

By order,

H. LUSON,

Offg. Deputy Secy. to the Govt. of India.

Resolution No. $\frac{P}{8017}$, dated Simla, the 27th June 1895, of the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department.

READ—

Resolution in the Home Department, No $\frac{10\text{-Public}}{917-920}$, dated 15th June 1895.

Ordered, that copies of this Resolution be forwarded to the Heads of Departments subordinate to this Department; to the Comptroller and Auditor General; and to all Accountants General and Comptrollers, for information and guidance.

R. NATHAN,

Offg. Under-Secy. to the Govt. of India.

Letter Nos. 2031-40, dated Simla, the 15th October 1898, from H. Lusson, Esq., Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department, to Local Governments and Administrations.

In several recent cases of Government servants dismissed for misconduct, it has been noticed that the charges laid against them have been investigated in a very unsatisfactory manner. The attention of Local Governments and Administrations is therefore drawn to the instructions contained in the Resolution of the Government of India, Home, Revenue and Agricultural Department (Public), No. $\frac{57}{1389-1404}$, dated the 29th July 1879. It is there laid down that in all cases of dismissal of public servants, except in cases of dismissal in consequence of facts or inferences elicited at a judicial trial, or when persons have absconded with an accusation over their heads, the charges must be reduced to writing, the defence must either be taken in, or reduced to, writing, and the decision on the defence must also be in writing. I am to request that the strict observance of these instructions may again be impressed upon all officers concerned.

Extract from the Proceedings of the Government of India in the Home, Revenue and Agricultural Department (Public),—No $\frac{37}{1380-1404}$, under date Simla, the 29th July 1879

Resolution

From time to time petitions, or appeals, against the orders of local officers, removing or dismissing Government servants, reach the Government of India. Such appeals ordinarily are forwarded through, or are reported upon by, the Local Governments. And the Governor General in Council is glad to say that he very rarely indeed sees ground for thinking such removals hasty or unjust. The general rule of the service is that the authority who can appoint to a particular office has power to dismiss or remove from that office, and an appeal lies from an order of dismissal to the official superior of the officer who passes such order. Since the date of the order passed by the Court of Directors in 1851 no general instructions on the subject of dismissing public servants have been circulated by the Government of India. Local Governments have from time to time issued such orders, and copy of a recent circular of the North-Western Provinces Government on the subject is appended to this Resolution. His Excellency the Governor General in Council believes that the forbearance and consideration enjoined by the Honourable Court are usually exercised by public officers of all grades and departments, but at the same time he deems it advisable to republish those instructions with the following remarks—

1 In order that a dismissed servant of Government may be able to exercise his right of appeal, it is obviously necessary that the charge against him, his defence and the order thereon should be reduced to writing. And this course, so far as the Governor General in Council is aware, is usually taken. In the case of public servants who are dismissed in consequence of facts or inferences elicited at a judicial trial, or in the case of persons who abscond with an accusation over their heads, this procedure may be unnecessary or impossible. But in all other cases of the dismissal of public servants, the charge against a public servant should be reduced to writing, his defence should be either taken in, or reduced to, writing, and the decision on such defence should also be in writing. In many cases (such for instance, as that of a clerk at an outlying tahsil station) the officer who passes the order of dismissal may not be able to make the enquiry himself, and the proceedings leading to dismissal would be conducted by the superior officer on the spot. The record of such charge, defence and decision would then furnish sufficient information for, and should be submitted to, the superior officer, or the Government to whom the dismissed servant may prefer an appeal.

2 In regard to the rules of conduct which should guide the relations of superior officers with their subordinates, the Governor General in Council fully concurs in the views expressed by the late Court of Directors in paragraphs 4 to 9 of their Despatch No. 42 of 1851 copies of which are appended to this Resolution.

ORDER—Ordered, that a copy of the above Resolution, with enclosures, be forwarded to all Local Governments and Administrations, and to all Departments of the Government of India, for information.

Extract (paragraph 13) from a Resolution of the Government of Bombay, Judicial Department, No. 7170, dated the 16th October 1883.

* * * * *

13. Lastly, the Governor in Council observes that the reservation of the Government of India quoted in paragraph 2 of this Resolution to the effect that the prescribed procedure might be unnecessary "in the case of public servants who are dismissed in consequence of facts or inferences elicited at a judicial trial," has been, in some cases, misunderstood. Doubtless trials may occur in which the conduct of some public servant is so mixed up with the matter under adjudication that any after enquiry into it by the Head of his Department would be superfluous, but what oftener happens is that some censure is passed on a public servant in a side remark from the Bench, which he has no opportunity of answering, or which the presiding officer may not have thought of sufficient importance to require verification. It would be extremely hazardous and unfair to accept such a remark as a deliberate judgment, and there seems no safe general rule except that a public servant, unless himself convicted at a judicial trial, has a right to defend himself departmentally against any imputation that he may have therein incurred.

* * * * *

Resolution No. 5210-Ex., dated Simla, the 29th November 1898, of the Government of India in the Finance and Commerce Department.

READ—

Letter from the Government of India in the Home Department, to all Local Governments and Administrations, Nos. 2031-40, dated the 15th October 1898.

Extract (paragraph 13) from a Resolution of the Government of Bombay, Judicial Department, No. 7170, dated the 16th October 1883, communicated to other Local Governments in Home Department Resolution No. 50—1681-9, dated 13th November 1883.

ORDER.—Ordered, that copies of the above, and of the Resolution of 1879 referred to in the Home Department letter of 15th October 1898, be forwarded to the Comptroller and Auditor-General, the Comptroller, India Treasuries, all Accountants-General and Comptrollers, the Head Commissioner of Paper Currency, the Mint and Assay Masters, Calcutta and Bombay, the Director-General of the Post Office of India, the Superintendent of Government Printing, India, the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, and the Director-General of Statistics.

W. S. MEYER,

Depty. Secy. to the Govt. of India.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 22 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following orders of the Government of India, on the subject of the supply, free of charge, to Heads of Departments of copies of judgments, and English translations of vernacular judgments, in the case of prosecutions of Government servants, are published for information

2 Copies of judgments supplied under these orders will be on plain paper and do not require to be stamped, but a copy on unstamped paper will not be admissible in any legal proceeding before a Court of Justice

R M DANE,
Commissioner.

Extract from the Proceedings of the Government of India in the Home Department (Judicial), No 1248-64,—under date Simla, the 31st August 1899

READ AGAIN—

Circular Nos 120—128, dated the 24th January 1899 on the subject of the supply free of charge to Heads of Departments of copies of judgments of Criminal courts in the case of prosecutions of Government servants

READ ALSO —

The replies to the above mentioned circular —

Letter from the Government of Madras, No 578 dated the 8th April 1899

Letter from the Government of Bombay No 4851, dated the 8th July 1899

Letter from the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, No 870 dated the 6th April 1899

Letter from the Government of the Punjab No 305 dated the 3rd March 1899

Letter from the Government of Burma, No 3445—C 13 dated the 12th May 1899

Letter from the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces No 3590 dated the 15th May 1899

Letter from the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, No 317 dated the 21st February 1899

Letter from the Resident at Hyderabad, No 89 dated the 23rd March 1899

Letter from the Registrar of the High Court of Judicature at Fort William in Bengal Appellate Side, No 1212, dated the 11th April 1899

Resolution.

In Home Department Circular, dated the 7th August 1868, the Government of India requested that instructions might be issued to the local authorities that whenever a Government official is judicially convicted of any offence, a copy of the decision should be sent to the Head of the Department in which he is employed, in order that such action in the case, as may be deemed proper, may be taken at once In the circular letter of the 24th January 1899, referred to in the preamble to ' Resol

the Government of India inquired (1) whether it is the practice in the several provinces to supply free of charge copies of judicial decisions sent to Heads of Departments under the orders of 1868, and (2) whether there would be any objection to the issue of a rule to the effect that copies of judgments of acquittal and orders of discharge should also be supplied free of cost on the application of the Head of the Department in which the officer is employed. The replies to the Circular answer the first of these questions in the affirmative and the second in the negative.

2. The Governor General in Council is therefore pleased to direct that the existing practice of supplying free of charge to the Head of the Department concerned copies of judgments convicting Government officers of criminal offences shall be continued, and that in future copies of judgments of acquittal and orders of discharge shall also be supplied free of charge on the application of the Head of the Department.

ORDER.—Ordered, that this Resolution be communicated to all Local Governments and Administrations and to the several Departments of the Government of India.

[True Extract.]

A. H. L. FRASER,

Officiating Secretary to the Government of India.

Extract from the Proceedings of the Government of India in the Home Department.
(Judicial), Nos. 405-21,—under date Calcutta, the 16th March 1900.

READ AGAIN:—

Home Department Resolution No. 1248, dated the 31st August 1899.

READ ALSO:—

Communication from the Public Works Department, No. 406-R. E., dated the 22nd February 1900.

Resolution.

In the Resolution of this Department dated the 31st August 1899, cited above, the Governor General directed the continuance of the practice of supplying, free of charge, to the Heads of Departments concerned, copies of judgments convicting Government officers of criminal offences, and the supply, free of charge, of copies of judgments of acquittal and orders of discharge on the application of the Head of the Department. His Excellency in Council is now pleased to direct that English translations of vernacular judgments in such cases shall also be supplied free of charge.

ORDER.—Ordered, that this Resolution be communicated to all Local Governments and Administrations and to the several Departments of the Government of India.

(True Extract.)

J. P. HEWETT,

Secretary to the Government of India.

The Opium Act, I of 1878, with Notification No 31 A, dated 2nd February 1878, of the Government of the North Western Provinces and Oudh, under section 14 of the Act, is published for the information of all officers in the department.

R M DANE,
Commissioner

ACT No I OF 1878

PASSED BY THE GOVERNOR GENERAL OF INDIA IN COUNCIL

(Received the assent of the Governor General on the 9th January 1878)

An Act to amend the law relating to opium

Whereas it is expedient to amend the law relating to opium, It is hereby
 Preamble enacted as follows —

Short title 1 This Act may be called ' The Opium Act,
1878 "

Local extent

And it shall come into force in each of such areas on such day as the Governor
Commencement General in Council in like manner directs in this
behalf

*2 The enactments mentioned in the schedule hereto annexed shall be repealed to the extent specified in the third column of the said schedule

*And in Acts No XI of 1849, No XXI of 1856 and No X of 1871, and in Amendment of Acts, Bengal Act No II of 1876, the words 'intoxicating drugs' (wherever they occur) shall not include opium

The reference made to Bombay Regulations XXI of 1827 and XX of 1830 in Act No VII of 1836 shall be read as if made to the corresponding sections of this Act

Interpretation clause 3 In this Act, unless there be something repugnant in the subject or context,—

"Opium" includes also poppy heads, preparations or admixtures of opium, and
intoxicating drugs prepared from the poppy

"Magistrate" means, in the Presidency-towns, a Presidency Magistrate, and elsewhere a Magistrate of the first class or (when specially empowered by the Local Government to try cases under this Act) a Magistrate of the second class :

"Magistrate."

"Import" means to bring into the territories administered by any Local Government from sea, or from foreign territory, or from a territory administered by any other Local Government :

"Import."

"Export" means to take out of the territories administered by any Local Government to sea, or to any foreign territory, or to any territory administered by another Local Government :

"Export."

"Transport" means to remove from one place to another within the territories administered by the same Local Government.

"Transport."

4. Except as permitted by this Act, or by any other enactment relating to opium Prohibition of poppy cultivation and possession, &c., of opium. for the time being in force, or by rules framed under this Act or under any such enactment, no one shall—

- (a) cultivate the poppy ;
- (b) manufacture opium ;
- (c) possess opium ;
- (d) transport opium ;
- (e) import or export opium ; or
- (f) sell opium.

5. The Local Government, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, may, from time to time, by notification in the local Gazette, make rules consistent with this Act, to permit absolutely or subject to the payment of duty or to any other conditions and to regulate within the whole or any specified part of the territories administered by such Government, all or any of the following matters :—

Power to make rules to permit such matters.

- (a) the cultivation of the poppy ;
- (b) the manufacture of opium ;
- (c) the possession of opium ;
- (d) the transport of opium ;
- (e) the importation or exportation of opium ; and
- (f) the sale of opium, and the form of duties leviable on the sale of opium by retail :

Provided that no duty shall be levied under any such rule on any opium imported and on which a duty is imposed by or under the law relating to sea customs for the time being in force or under section six.

6 The Governor General in Council may, from time to time, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, impose such duty as he thinks fit on opium or on any kind of opium imported by land into British India or into any specified part thereof, and may alter or abolish any duty so imposed

7 The Governor General in Council may, by order notified in the *Gazette of India*,
Warehousing opium

(a) authorize any Local Government to establish warehouses for opium legally imported into, or intended to be exported from, the territories administered by such Local Government, and

(b) cancel any such order

So long as such order remains in force, the Local Government may, by notification published in the official *Gazette*,

(c) declare any place to be a warehouse for all or any opium legally imported, whether before or after the payment of any duty leviable thereon, into the territories administered by such Government, or into any specified part thereof, or intended to be exported thence, and

(d) cancel any such declaration.

An order under clause (b) shall cancel all previous declarations under clause (c) of this section relating to places in the territories to which such order refers

So long as such declaration remains in force, the owner of all such opium shall be bound to deposit it in such warehouse

8 The Local Government, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, may, from time to time, by notification in the local *Gazette*, make rules consistent with this Act to regulate the safe custody of opium warehoused under section seven; the levy of fees for such warehousing, the removal of such opium for sale or exportation, and the manner in which it shall be disposed of, if any duty or fees leviable on it be not paid within twelve months from the date of warehousing the same

9 Any person who, in contravention of this Act, or of rules made and notified under section five or section eight,
Penalty for illegal cultivation of poppy, &c

(a) cultivates the poppy, or,

(b) manufactures opium, or

(c) possesses opium, or

(d) transports opium, or

(e) imports or exports opium, or

(f) sells opium, or

(g) omits to warehouse opium or removes or does any act in respect of warehoused opium,

and any person who otherwise contravenes any such rule, shall, on conviction before a Magistrate, be punished for each such offence with imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year, or with fine which may extend to one thousand rupees, or with both ;

and, where a fine is imposed, the convicting Magistrate shall direct the offender to be imprisoned in default of payment of the fine for a term which may extend to six months, and such imprisonment shall be in excess of any other imprisonment to which he may have been sentenced.

10. In prosecutions under section nine, it shall be presumed, until the contrary is proved, that all opium for which the accused person is unable to account satisfactorily is opium in respect of which he has committed an offence under this Act.

Presumption in prosecutions under section nine.

Confiscation of opium.

11. In any case in which an offence under section nine has been committed—

(a) the poppy so cultivated;

(b) the opium in respect of which any offence under the same section has been committed ;

(c) where, in the case of an offence under clause (d) or (e) of the same section, the offender is transporting, importing or exporting any opium exceeding the quantity (if any) which he is permitted to transport, import or export, as the case may be, the whole of the opium which he is transporting, importing or exporting ;

(d) where, in the case of an offence under clause (f) of the same section, the offender has in his possession any opium other than the opium in respect of which the offence has been committed, the whole of such other opium,

shall be liable to confiscation.

The vessels, packages and coverings in which any opium liable to confiscation under this section is found, and the other contents (if any) of the vessel or package in which such opium may be concealed, and the animals and conveyances used in carrying it, shall likewise be liable to confiscation.

12. When the offender is convicted, or when the person charged with an offence in respect of any opium is acquitted, but the Magistrate decides that the opium is liable to confiscation, such confiscation may be ordered by the Magistrate.

Order of confiscation by whom to be made.

Whenever confiscation is authorized by this Act, the officer ordering it may give the owner of the thing liable to be confiscated an option to pay, in lieu of confiscation, such fine as the officer thinks fit.

When an offence against this Act has been committed, but the offender is not known or cannot be found, or when opium not in the possession of any person cannot be satisfactorily accounted for, the case shall be enquired into and determined by the Collector of the District or Deputy Commissioner, or by any other officer authorized by the Local Government in this behalf, either personally or in right of his office, who may order such confiscation. Provided that no such order shall be made until the expiration of one month from the date of seizing the things intended to be confiscated or without hearing the persons (if any) claiming any right thereto, and the evidence (if any) which they produce in support of their claims.

13 The Local Government may, with the previous sanction of the Governor

General in Council, from time to time, by notification in the local Gazette, make rules consistent with this Act to regulate—

Power to make rules regarding disposal of things confiscated and rewards

- (a) the disposal of all things confiscated under this Act, and
- (b) the rewards to be paid to officers and informers out of the proceeds of fines and confiscations under this Act

14 Any officer of any of the departments of Excise, Police, Customs, Salt, Opium

or Revenue, superior in rank to a peon or constable, who may in right of his office be authorized by the Local Government in this behalf, and who has reason to believe, from personal knowledge or from

Power to enter, arrest and seize on information that opium is unlawfully kept in any enclosed place

information given by any person and taken down in writing, that opium liable to confiscation under this Act is manufactured, kept or concealed in any building, vessel or enclosed place, may, between sunrise and sunset,

- (a) enter into any such building, vessel or place;
- (b) in case of resistance, break open any door and remove any other obstacle to such entry,
- (c) seize such opium and all materials used in the manufacture thereof, and any other thing which he has reason to believe to be liable to confiscation under section eleven or any other law for the time being in force relating to opium, and
- (d) detain and search, and if he think proper arrest, any person whom he has reason to believe to be guilty of any offence relating to such opium under this or any other law for the time being in force

Power to seize opium in open places. 15 Any officer of any of the said departments may

- (a) seize, in any open place or in transit, any opium or other thing which he has reason to believe to be liable to confiscation under section eleven or any other law for the time being in force relating to opium,

(b) detain and search any person whom he has reason to believe to be guilty of any offence against this or any other such law, and, if such person has opium in his possession, arrest him and any other persons in his company.

Power to detain, search and arrest.

16. All searches under section fourteen or section fifteen shall be made in accordance with the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure.

Searches how made.

17. The officers of the several departments mentioned in section fourteen shall, upon notice given or request made, be legally bound to assist each other in carrying out the provisions of this Act.

Officers to assist each other.

18. Any officer of any of the said departments who, without reasonable ground of suspicion, enters or searches, or causes to be entered or searched, any building, vessel or place,

Vexatious entries, searches, seizures and arrests.

or vexatiously and unnecessarily seizes the property of any person on the pretence of seizing or searching for any opium or other thing liable to confiscation under this Act,

or vexatiously and unnecessarily detains, searches or arrests any person, shall for every such offence be punished with fine not exceeding five hundred rupees.

19. The Collector of the District, Deputy Commissioner or other officer authorized by the Local Government in this behalf, either personally or in right of his office, or a Magistrate, may issue his warrant for the arrest of any person whom he has reason to believe to have committed an offence relating to opium, or for the search, whether by day or night, of any building or vessel or place in which he has reason to believe opium liable to confiscation to be kept or concealed.

Issue of warrants.

All warrants issued under this section shall be executed in accordance with the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure.

20. Every person arrested, and thing seized, under section fourteen or section fifteen, shall be forwarded without delay to the officer in charge of the nearest police-station; and every person arrested and thing seized under section nineteen shall be forwarded without delay to the officer by whom the warrant was issued.

Disposal of person arrested or thing seized.

Every officer to whom any person or thing is forwarded under this section shall, with all convenient despatch, take such measures as may be necessary for the disposal according to law of such person or thing.

21. Whenever any officer makes any arrest or seizure under this Act, he shall within forty-eight hours next after such arrest or seizure make a full report of all the particulars of such arrest or seizure to his immediate official superior.

Report of arrests and seizures.

22 In the case of alleged illegal cultivation of the poppy, the crop shall not be removed, but shall, pending the disposal of the case, be attached by an officer superior in rank to a peon or constable, who may in right of his office be authorized by the Local Government in this behalf, and such officer shall require the cultivator to give bail in a reasonable amount (to be fixed by such officer) for his appearance before the Magistrate by whom the case is to be disposed of, and such cultivator shall not be arrested unless within a reasonable time he fails to give such bail

Provided that wherever Act No XIII of 1857 (*An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to the cultivation of the Poppy and the manufacture of Opium in the Presidency of Fort William in Bengal*), or any part thereof, is in force, nothing in this section shall apply to such cultivation

23 Any arrear of any fee or duty imposed under Act or any rule made hereunder,

Recovery of arrears of fees, duties &c

and any arrear due from any farmer of opium-revenue,

may be recovered from the person primarily liable to pay the same to the Government or from his surety (if any) as if it were an arrear of land revenue

24 When any amount is due to a farmer of opium revenue from his licensee in

Farmer may apply to Collector or other officer to recover amount due to him by licensee respect of a license, such farmer may make an application to the Collector of the District, Deputy Commissioner or other officer authorized by the Local Government in this behalf, praying such officer to recover such amount on behalf of the applicant, and, on receiving such application, such Collector, Deputy Commissioner or other officer may in his discretion recover such amount as if it were an arrear of land revenue, and shall pay any amount so recovered to the applicant.

Provided that the execution of any process issued by such Collector, Deputy Collector or other officer for the recovery of such amount, shall be stayed if the licensee institutes a suit in the Civil Court to try the demand of the farmer, and furnishes security to the satisfaction of such officer for the payment of the amount which such Court may adjudge to be due from him to such farmer

Provided also that nothing contained in this section or done thereunder shall affect the right of any farmer of opium-revenue to recover by suit in the Civil Court or otherwise any amount due to him from such licensee

25 When any person in compliance with any rule made hereunder gives a bond for

the performance of any duty or act, such duty or act shall be deemed to be a public duty or an act in which the public are interested, as the case may be, within the meaning of the Indian Contract Act, 1872, section 74, and, upon breach of the condition of such bond by him, the whole sum named therein as the amount to be paid in case of such breach may be recovered from him as if it were an arrear of land-revenue

SCHEDULE.

ACTS OF THE GOVERNOR GENERAL IN COUNCIL.

Number and year.	Subject or title.	Extent of repeal.
Act XI of 1849 ..	Abkari Revenue of Calcutta ...	<p>In section 5, the word " opium. "</p> <p>In section 6, the word " opium " and the last thirty-one words.</p> <p>In section 15, from and including the words " except in the case," to the end of the section.</p> <p>In section 33, from and including the words " except opium " down to and including the words " each seer ; " and the words " or in the case of opium as aforesaid, a reward of one rupee eight annas for each seer."</p>
Act III of 1852 ...	Spirituons Liquors, Bombay ...	Section 10, so far as it relates to opium.
Act XXI of 1856 ...	Bengal Abkari Act ...	<p>In section 28, the word " opium."</p> <p>Sections 34, 51, 52, 53 and 87.</p> <p>In section 35, the words " or opium."</p> <p>In section 49, the words " except opium. "</p> <p>Section 59, so far as it relates to opium.</p> <p>In section 75, the words " except opium " and from and including the words " opium seized," down to the end.</p> <p>In section 76, from and including the words " except opium," down to and including the words " each seer ; " and from and including the words " or in," down to and including the words " each seer."</p> <p>In paragraph 8 of section 90, the words " and opium "</p>
Act XIII of 1857 ...	Cultivation of the poppy and manufacture of opium.	Section 2.
Act X of 1871 ...	The Northern India Excise Act	<p>In paragraph 5 of section 3, the word " opium."</p> <p>Sections 18, 65, 66, 67 and 87.</p> <p>In section 19, the words " or opium."</p> <p>Section 46, so far as it relates to opium. ,</p> <p>In section 46, paragraph 3, from and including the words " as well as," down to and including the words " dealings in opium,"</p> <p>In section 63, the words " except opium."</p> <p>In section 78, the words " except opium," and paragraph 2.</p> <p>In section 79, from and including the word " except opium," down to and including the words " each seer," and from and including the words " or in," down to and including the words " each seer."</p>

SCHEDULE—continued.

ACT OF THE GOVERNOR GENERAL IN COUNCIL—continued

Number and year.	Subject or title.	Extent of repeal
Act IV of 1872	The Punjab Laws Act	Section 49
Act XXVI of 1872	Punjab Opium Law Amendment	The whole Act
Act VI of 1873	Transshipment of goods	Section 7
Act XVI of 1875	The Indian Tariff Act	Section 9
Act XXIII of 1876	To amend the law relating to <i>Opium</i>	The whole Act.
Act VI of 1877	For postponing the day on which the Opium Act, 1876, is to come into force	The whole Act.

ACT OF THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR OF BENGAL IN COUNCIL.

Number and year.	Subject.	Extent of repeal
Act II of 1876	To amend Act XI of 1849 Act XXI of 1856, and Act IV (B C) of 1866	<p>In section 3 in the section substituted for section 33 of Act XI of 1849 the words "except opium" and from and including the words "confiscated opium" down to and including the words "general order"</p> <p>In section 3, in the section substituted for section 34 of Act XI of 1849 the words "except in the case of opium," and from and including the words "and in the case of opium" down to and including the words "similarly distributed"</p> <p>the words "general order"</p>

Bombay Regulations.

Bombay Regulation XXI of 1827.	Duty on opium	The preamble, from and including the word "with the combined," down to and including the words "the prohibited."
Bombay Regulation XX of 1830.	Malwa opium	Chapters I, II, III and IV. So much as has not been repealed.

Notification of the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, Separate Revenue,—No. 31-A., dated the 2nd February 1878.

His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor and Chief Commissioner is pleased to authorise all Inland Customs Officers in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, not inferior in rank to a Sub-Assistant Patrol or Sub-Inspector,* to exercise the powers described in section 14 of the Opium Act, 1878.

* Now Inspector.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 24 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, 3rd January 1902.

The following Resolution of the Government of India, regarding the occupation of Government quarters by officers drawing house rent, is published for general information and guidance.

R. M. DANE,

Commissioner.

Resolution No 377, dated 12th June 1877.

An officer lately drew an allowance for house rent while occupying Government quarters without paying rent therefor. The Civil Accountant General could not check this officer's claims, because he did not know that the officer was inhabiting Government quarters rent free. The Governor General in Council requests that each Local Government and Administration will take care that the officer who audits his claims for pay and allowances is informed whenever an officer of Government is allowed to occupy any public building without payment of rent.

2 The Governor General in Council desires also to remind all public officers that it can rarely, if ever, be right for an officer to draw an allowance for house rent while he is occupying public premises. Before claiming any such allowance, under such circumstances, an officer should obtain explicit orders authorizing it.

Ordered, that this resolution be communicated to the Public Works Department, for information and for the issue of further necessary orders

BOOK CIRCULAR No 25 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The accompanying office memorandum of the Government of India, and Despatch from the Secretary of State, No. 29, dated 24th March 1892, directing that all applications to the Royal Humane Society from Local Governments and Administrations and from their officers, excepting the Governments of Madras and Bombay, shall be submitted through the Home Department of the Government of India, are published for the information and guidance of all officers in the Department.

2. Correspondence direct with the Society by any officer of the Department is prohibited.

R. M. DANE,

Commissioner.

Office Memorandum No. 1607 of the Government of India in the Home Department (Public), dated Simla, the 15th June 1892.

In continuation of the endorsement from this Department, the undersigned is

No. 1410, dated 4th May 1892, to
Public Works Department.

No. 1974, dated 21st October 1889, to
Military Department.

may be made to ensure that all applications received in future for the grant of the

No. 77 (Public), dated 25th July 1889.

No. 92 (Public), dated 29th August 1889.

No. 154 (Public), dated 18th December
1890.

No. 29 (Public), dated 24th March 1892.

directed to forward to the Department the despatches, from the Secretary of State for India, marginally note, and to request that arrangements shall be forwarded to this Department for transmission to the India Office.

To

ALL DEPARTMENTS OF THE
GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

P. G. MELITUS,

*Offg. Deputy Secretary to the
Government of India.*

No. 29 (Public), dated India Office, London, the 24th March 1892. from the Secretary of State for India, to the Government of India.

With reference to the endorsement No. 204-T.E., dated the 30th of November last, addressed to this office by the Under Secretary to the Government of India, in the Public Works, Telegraph Establishment, and to your letter No. 58, dated the 16th of

*Testimonials on vellum.

December last,* I forward for delivery to Signaller E. C. A. Browne and Constable Bahadur Khan the awards of the Royal Humane Society in consideration of their conduct in rescuing from drowning a boy and a girl on the 13th of June and the 14th of August 1891, respectively.

2 It appears that the Director-General of Telegraphs transmitted direct to the

* See Public despatch to Government of India dated 18th December 1890 No 154, and previous despatches cited therein Society the application in behalf of Signaller Browne, contrary to the instructions* regulating the submission of these cases, and that he was requested by the Society to return the form supplied to him through the official channel

3 To avoid further mistakes of this kind, I would suggest that your Excellency in Council should issue an order directing that all applications to the Royal Humane Society from the several Local Governments and Administrations and their respective officers, excepting the Governments of Madras and Bombay, be submitted through the Home Department of the Government of India

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 26 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following Resolution of the Government of India in the Public Works Department, on the subject of the classification and transmission of State telegrams, is published for information and guidance.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

Resolution of the Government of India, Public Works Department, No. 165-T., dated 14th July 1888.

READ AGAIN—

Resolution in the Public Works Department, Nos. 41C-42-T., dated the 14th November 1881.

READ ALSO—

Letter from the Comptroller and Auditor-General, 133, dated the 19th April 1887. Circular in the Department, Finance and Commerce, No. 4278, dated the 24th August 1887, to the several Local Governments and Administrations, and to all Accountants General and Comptrollers.

OBSERVATIONS.

By the orders contained in the Resolution of November 1881, cited in the preamble, the Government of India introduced the present system of classifying telegrams, by which, instead of being despatched simply in order of presentation at the Telegraph offices, they receive preference for despatch according as they are paid for as "urgent," "ordinary" and "deferred." At the same time it was directed that all State messages should be sent as "deferred," unless specially marked as "urgent" by the sender, and that no State message should be despatched as an "ordinary" message. In July 1887, however, from statistics showing the number of State messages classed as "deferred" and "urgent" during the five years ending 1886-87, it appeared that the percentage classed as "urgent" was very much greater in the case of State than of private messages. As this pointed to the withdrawal of the prohibition to send State messages as "ordinary," the opinions of the Local Governments and Administrations and of the Account Officers of Government were requested on the subject. They were asked to report whether they considered that the proposed change would lead to economy, and whether they could suggest any effective check on the abuse of the discretion now allowed to public officers of classifying State messages as "urgent."

2. The opinions called for have now been obtained and considered; and the attention of the Government of India has been particularly drawn to the fact that in many cases State messages are sent as "urgent" merely to save the delay of a day which is presumed to result from sending them "deferred." Nothing is gained by sending such messages "urgent" which would not be equally secured if they were permitted to be sent "ordinary"; it has been consequently determined that the order which forbids the use of "ordinary" State messages shall be repealed.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 28 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following order of the Government of India, relating to the carriage of the personal effects of non-gazetted officers transferred from one station to another, under Article 1205 (a) of the Civil Service Regulations is published for information

R M DANE,

Commissioner

Letter No 139-S R, dated Calcutta, the 23rd March 1900, from J B Brunyate, Esq, Under-Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Secretary to the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh

In reply to your letter No 61a—X-T-165, dated 1st February 1900, I am directed to say that the Government of India have decided that an officer entitled to the concession in Article 1205 (a), Civil Service Regulations, may be allowed the cost of carriage by goods train or cargo steamer of his personal effects, within the limits of the prescribed scale, however such effects may be carried, i.e., whether by goods train or passenger train, or otherwise

Ordered, that copy with copy of the letter to which the above is a reply be forwarded to all Local Governments * and Administrations, all Departments of the Government of India, all Heads of Departments under this Department, and all Accountants General and Comptrollers

* Except North Western Provinces and Oudh

Letter No 615—X T 165 dated 1st February 1900, from the Secretary to the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, to the Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department

I am directed to state that the following case has been represented to the Government

2 A Tahsildar proceeding on transfer which entitled him to the concession in Article 1205 of the Civil Service Regulations, carried some luggage (within the prescribed maximum of weight) by passenger train, but charged for it only at goods train rates. The Accountant General, however, has refused to pass any charge at all on the ground that there was not a literal compliance with the rule in regard to the manner of carriage and points to the orders given in letter No. 315 M W, dated the 7th February 1890, from the Government of India, Military Department, to the Inspector-General, Military Works

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 27 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following order of the Government of India regarding the use of vernacular terms in official correspondence, is published for general information and guidance.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

*Letter No. ^{2 Public}/₁₃₄₋₁₁₃, dated Calcutta, the 7th February 1895, from J. P. Hewett, Esq., C.I.E.,
Offg. Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department, to Local Governments
and Administrations.*

In the Circular letter from this Department, No. 70-3943-52 of the 31st December 1873, the Government of India drew attention to the instructions of the late Honourable Court of Directors regarding the use of vernacular terms in official correspondence, and requested that such terms should be employed as sparingly as possible, especially in papers which were intended to go beyond the Local Government first concerned. Again, in the extract circulated with Resolution No. 2-81-95, of 31st January 1881, the Secretary of State drew attention to the inconvenience attending the use of vernacular terms in reports or official correspondence sent home to the India Office, and directed that, whenever it was considered desirable to make use of them, their English equivalents should also be given.

2. It appears to the Government of India that these instructions have in some measure been lost sight of owing to lapse of time. Letters and reports which come before the Governor General in Council, and especially those dealing with revenue matters, are not infrequently almost unintelligible to persons unacquainted with the Province from which they are received, owing to the number of vernacular terms with which their pages are laden.

3. I am, therefore, to request that the use of such terms may be avoided as far as possible. It is sometimes necessary to employ vernacular words for which there exists no English equivalent, and the precise meaning of which can be conveyed in English, if at all, only by a long periphrasis. But whenever it is possible to use an English word which expresses, with sufficient accuracy for the immediate purpose, the meaning to be conveyed, this should be done.

4. In the orders of 1873 referred to above it was stated that they were "not meant to govern necessarily the style of correspondence carried on between a Local Government and the officers subordinate to it, but were applicable mainly to writings intended to go beyond one Local Government." It is, however, difficult to distinguish between papers that may go beyond the Local Government and those that will not; and even those that do not, must be reproduced in Proceedings which are always examined by the Government of India. Moreover, officers can hardly be expected to cultivate two distinct official styles, to be used respectively in the two classes of papers. The Government of India hope, therefore, that if

no objection to so doing, will extend

these instructions to all official correspondence in.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 28 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following order of the Government of India, relating to the carriage of the personal effects of non-gazetted officers transferred from one station to another, under Article 1205 (a) of the Civil Service Regulations is published for information

R M DANE,

Commissioner

Letter No 1397-S R, dated Calcutta, the 23rd March 1900, from J B Brunyate, Esq, Under Secretary to the Government of India, Finance and Commerce Department, to the Secretary to the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh

In reply to your letter No 615—X-T-165, dated 1st February 1900, I am directed to say that the Government of India have decided that an officer entitled to the concession in Article 1205 (a), Civil Service Regulations, may be allowed the cost of carriage by goods train or cargo steamer of his personal effects, within the limits of the prescribed scale however such effects may be carried, i.e., whether by goods train or passenger train, or otherwise

Ordered, that copy with copy of the letter to which the above is a reply be forwarded to all Local Governments * and Administrations, all Departments of the Government of India, all Heads of Departments under this Department, and all Accountants General and Comptrollers

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I am directed to state that the following case has been represented to the Government

2 A Tahsildar proceeding on transfer which entitled him to the concession in Article 1205 of the Civil Service Regulations, carried some luggage (within the prescribed maximum of weight) by passenger train, but charged for it only at goods train rates. The Accountant General, however, has refused to pass any charge at all on the ground that there was not a literal compliance with the rule in regard to the manner of carriage and points to the orders given in letter No. 345 M W, dated the 7th February 1890, from the Government of India, Military Department, to the Inspector-General, Military Works

3. The object of the restriction of the concession in Article 1205 of the Civil Service Regulations to "cargo steamer or goods train" is clearly to keep down the cost to the State, and so long as that maximum of cost is not exceeded, it may reasonably be argued that, Government should not debar the individual from adopting any more rapid form of conveyance, if he pays for the same. Government does not lose and the officer and through him the public service may be inconvenienced. The point therefore which the Lieutenant-Governor and Chief Commissioner desires to refer to the consideration of the Government of India is whether, provided that the amount drawn shall not exceed the cost of sending the goods by "cargo steamer or goods train," and that the prescribed maximum of weight shall not be exceeded, an officer may not be entitled to the benefits of the Article although he sends his baggage by passenger train.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 29 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following rules and orders, in regard to the form and arrangement of English records in the offices of the Department, and in regard to office inspections, office procedure and the destruction of obsolete and unnecessary papers, are issued, in supercession of all previous orders on the subject, for information and guidance

R M DANE,
Commissioner

Central Office

1. Correspondence received and despatched will be recorded in—

(1) A register of receipts (form 137)

(2) A register of issues (form 138)

All letters received will be entered, immediately on receipt, in the register of receipts and will be stamped with a rubber stamp as follows, the blank spaces in the stamp being filled up in manuscript —

Date of receipt _____

Register No _____ dated _____

Pending File No _____

Serial No _____

Similarly, the drafts of all letters for despatch will be entered in the register of issue, and will be numbered and dated and impressed with a rubber stamp as follows, the blanks in the stamp being filled up in manuscript —

Pending File No _____

Serial No _____.

2 On the inception of a file on any subject, whether it be by a letter received or one issued, it will be headed by a file facing (form 139) A form for notes and orders (form 140) will also be attached Between these forms all papers will be arranged in open fold, secured by a tag when the file is light and by laces when papers are numerous and heavy in the aggregate

3 Files will be divided into two classes, namely—

(1) Permanent files

(2) Ephemeral files

Ordinarily all correspondence which is entered in the registers of receipts and issues, (forms 137 and 138) will be formed into permanent files Such files will be entered in the Pending File Register (form 141) and will receive numbers as soon as they are opened These numbers will be consecutive and will be according to the calendar year. All papers of a file will be serially numbered.

Correspondence by unnumbered office memoranda and other unimportant papers will be formed into ephemeral files. The papers in such files will receive serial numbers, as in the case of permanent files; but the files themselves will not be numbered until they are closed and are to be deposited finally: they will then be numbered consecutively according to the calendar year.

A record of the two classes of files will be maintained in the following registers:—

(1) The Permanent File Register (forms 142 and 143).

(2) The Ephemeral File Register (form 144).

The permanent file register will be divided into nine sections (form 142), and all permanent files will be classified under these. When a file is closed, it will be numbered consecutively according to the calendar year, will be entered in the register under its appropriate head, and will then be finally deposited.

There will be no classification in the ephemeral file register.

When closed and deposited, all files, both permanent and ephemeral, will be arranged separately according to the calendar year and in consecutive order by numbers.

4. Pending files should be kept properly arranged on the shelves of the almirahs in the record room according to divisions or subjects, as may appear the more expedient from their nature.

At the close of each month the Personal Assistant will examine all pending files to ascertain that no point requiring orders is being overlooked, and the result of this inspection will be formally reported.

5. The facing of a file must be carefully prepared. The subject should be briefly but clearly given, and all previous files having any reference to the same subject should be marked on the facing. This should be carefully done, as it will ensure the prompt production and submission, when required, of all the files bearing on any particular subject.

6. The papers of a file should be arranged according to the dates of receipt and issue, and the pages should be numbered in consecutive order. The numbering should be in pencil while the file is pending; but should be done in ink when the file is closed and is about to be deposited. Enclosures should follow the letters to which they belong. When maps, or documents which cannot be brought on to a file, have to be recorded, they should be put into a pocket of strong brown paper immediately after the file facing.

7. Copies of reminders should not be kept on a file. When a reminder issues, it will be sufficient to enter a note of its despatch upon the paper to which it has reference.

The accumulation of unimportant and unnecessary entries in the notes and orders attached to a file should also be avoided.

The pages containing notes and orders on a file should be numbered in consecutive order by figures within brackets, thus (1), (2), (3).

8 So far as may be possible, the weight of files should be limited to 33 tolas, so as to facilitate their despatch by letter post. In important cases, however, in which a clear and continuous record is desirable, this rule may be departed from. Special orders should be obtained as to the closure of files in such cases.

9 The Finance Department has undertaken to supply printed copies of its proceedings affecting this Department, and whenever it is possible to do so, print should be substituted for manuscript in files. When printed papers are placed on a file the manuscript copies should be removed and kept separately in a subsidiary file for reference if required.

10 When a file becomes bulky, the important and unimportant papers should be separated and arranged in two files. The words 'Important papers—Unimportant papers kept separately' should be entered upon the facing of the file of important papers. A new facing should be prepared for the unimportant papers, and an entry, "Unimportant papers" should be made upon it. No entries need be made in the reference form of such a facing. When such a separation is made, a list of the unimportant papers separated should be prepared and placed on the main file. In the records, the two collections of important and unimportant documents of a file will be kept together. If a file is required, only the important collection should be put up, unless papers recorded in the unimportant portion are specially referred to in the letter or papers under consideration.

11 If, even after the separation of unimportant papers, a file is still bulky and sheets of notes and orders are numerous, the latter should be separated and placed on a separate tag or lace with a facing (form 145). This separation will, however, only be made for convenience of reference, and both collections of papers will continue to be kept within one binder.

12 A list or index of papers (form 146) should be prepared for all files of importance and should be placed immediately after the file facing. These lists should be opened and kept up as soon as files are found to be of importance.

13 To prevent wear and tear of papers by use or in transmission by post, cardboard covers should be put on all bulky files and on all important files of whatever size, the file facings being pasted up on the sheets of card board. When such files are closed, the tags or laces should be removed and the papers should be bound in book form by means of packing thread or thin twine. All important files despatched by post should be protected by combined card boards and binders.

14 Correspondence of a purely ephemeral nature should ordinarily be carried on by unnumbered memoranda, with a view to obviating unnecessary entries in the registers of receipts and issues.

15 The Personal Assistant will maintain a despatch book (form 147) of all papers despatched by him to the Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner on tour, and care should be taken to see that papers are duly received back in office.

16 A daily précis of correspondence received and issued (forms 148 and 149) shall be furnished from day to day to the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner for information.

Office Inspection.

17. At the close of March and September in each year, the Personal Assistant shall thoroughly examine the registers and records of the office and shall submit a formal and detailed report upon their condition and manner in which they have been maintained in order.

Offices of Assistant Commissioners.

(FORM AND ARRANGEMENT OF RECORDS.)

18. On unimportant subjects, Assistant Commissioners should, so far as may be possible, correspond with officers subordinate to them by means of unnumbered memoranda, reply memos. being utilised for the purpose. Registers of receipts and issues, (forms 137 and 138), will be maintained for the registry of correspondence of which it is necessary to maintain a systematic record.

19. Files will be of three classes, (1) important, (2) unimportant and (3) ephemeral. Important files will be kept opened out to foolscap size; the papers of unimportant and ephemeral files will be folded to a quarter of that size as at present.

20. The papers of important files will be arranged, according to dates of receipt or issue, upon tags, or on laces as may be necessary, and will be kept between cardboards upon which file facings in form 139 will be pasted. The pages of such files should be numbered, and lists of papers, similar to those prescribed in Rule 12 of the Central Office Rules, should be placed upon them. When such files are closed, the tags or laces should be removed and the papers should be bound in book form by means of packing thread or thin twine.

21. The papers of unimportant and ephemeral files should be numbered, and kept together by binders. File facings (form 150), should be placed upon unimportant files, and also upon ephemeral files when the number of papers in such renders it necessary. When an unimportant file has been closed, the papers in it should not be removed; if further correspondence having reference to such a file ensues, it will suffice to fill up the reference form on the facings of the closed and the newly opened files.

22. Important and unimportant files will be numbered serially according to the calendar year, one set of serial numbers being used for both. Ephemeral files will not be numbered, but will be placed in monthly bundles according to dates of closure.

23. At the end of each month, the Assistant Commissioner will personally examine the files which have been closed during the month on cessation of correspondence, and will classify them according to their importance. The important and unimportant files will then be numbered and completed, and particulars regarding them will be entered in the permanent file register (forms 151 to 154). Care should be taken to enter the files under the proper heads in this register.

24. The introduction of a yearly serial number for files renders the use of pigeon holes unnecessary in *almirahs*. Files should be kept in bundles of convenient size, each bundle being labelled with the numbers of the files contained in it. Important and unimportant files should be deposited in separate bundles.

25 Assistant Commissioners should examine their records and take out and open to foolscap size, in accordance with Rule 20, the important files of past years and arrange them separately for facility of reference.

Offices of Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents.

26 Correspondence in these offices shall be folded to quarter foolscap size and kept neatly tied up in monthly packets. Connected correspondence should be tied together and placed in the packet of the month in which it terminated.

27 Registers, and other records which may not be required for reference should, when completed, be transferred from subordinate offices to the offices of Assistant Commissioners for storage. It is unnecessary to maintain in these offices records which are not actually required. In the Internal Branch especially, the bulk of the records in the camp offices of Circle Officers should be kept as small as may be compatible with efficiency.

Office Procedure in Divisional and Subordinate Offices

28 Official correspondence in all offices of the Department must be carried on in English whenever practicable. Officers must invariably correspond with each other, and with subordinates acquainted with English, in that language. The use of vernacular must be limited to cases in which subordinates are acquainted with vernacular only. Assistant Commissioners should see that this rule is complied with by all officers in their Divisions.

29 Assistant Commissioners shall submit, at the close of each month, a précis of correspondence to the Commissioner in form 155. All correspondence with officers other than those of the Department except on purely routine matters of account, and all correspondence of importance with officers of the Department other than the Commissioner, should be included in the précis. When there has been no such correspondence the form may be submitted blank with a note to that effect.

30 An Assistant Commissioner who is transferred or takes long leave, is required to leave an office memorandum or note of all matters of importance which have occurred since the submission of the last annual report and of all points requiring immediate action or attention, to assist his successor in the administration of the Division and in the preparation of the forthcoming annual report.

31 Supplies of stationery entrusted to Assistant Commissioners for their official use should be kept in the custody of a responsible and trustworthy clerk. When an Assistant Commissioner examines his office in the manner enjoined in rule 35, the quantity of stationery in stock should be checked and compared with the balances shewn in the register prescribed by the Stationery Office, and a note of the result should be entered in the register.

32 Important papers, duplicates of which do not exist, should invariably be despatched by post in registered covers. Service and character books should also be registered when transmitted by post.

33 The use by officers of service stamps and State telegrams in correspondence regarding pay, leave allowances, and other matters of a personal nature has been

declared by the Comptroller, India Treasuries, to be irregular, and is accordingly prohibited.

34. Applications for maps should not be made direct to the Survey Department. The Commissioner should be addressed when maps are required.

Office inspections.

35. During April and October in each year, Assistant Commissioners will carefully examine the work that has been done in their offices during the half year preceding and will submit a detailed report showing that all books and records have been kept in order and are up to date.

36. During the same months, Assistant Commissioners at the Rajputana Salt Sources and the Mines in the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province will similarly examine the offices of officers subordinate to them and will submit detailed reports of such inspections. The Assistant Commissioners of the Internal Branch will inspect Circle Offices either during their winter tours or the rainy season, and will submit inspection reports as described above.

Destruction of Records.

37. Lists shall be prepared and maintained, under the orders of the Commissioner, for the Central Office and for the offices in each Division, showing which records should be maintained permanently, and which should be periodically destroyed. During their periodical inspections of offices, the Personal Assistant in the Central Office, and Assistant Commissioners of Divisions, should arrange to separate and burn all accumulated records of which the destruction is authorised by these lists.

38. In the Central Office, the ephemeral files of periods prior to the half year that may be under inspection should be examined, and all that it may be unnecessary to retain for purposes of reference should be destroyed. This procedure should be systematically followed, with a view to the number of files of this class being kept as low as possible.

39. Assistant Commissioners should deal in a similar manner with the ephemeral correspondence of their offices. They should further examine the unimportant files in their records, and destroy any that it may have become unnecessary to maintain owing to efflux of time. The file facings of any unimportant files that may be destroyed should be kept on record, a note of the destruction of the papers which they covered being made upon them. When inspecting offices subordinate to their own, Assistant Commissioners should examine the letters on record and should destroy all which it is, in their opinion, unnecessary to keep for reference.

Register of Receipts.

[illegible]

FORM No. 138.

Register of Issues.

[illegible]

FORM No. 139.

NORTHERN INDIA SALT DEPARTMENT.

 Permanent File No. _____ of 19 .

 Pending File No. _____ of 19 .

Head of Permanent File Register.

SUBJECT.

Previous Files.				Later Files.			
No.	Year.	No.	Year.	No.	Year.	No.	Year.

All previous files bearing on this case
have been marked on this file.

Record-keeper.

This file has been marked on all rele-
vant previous files.

Receipt and Issue Registers marked.

Record-keeper.

Diarrist.

FORM No. 140.

NOTES AND ORDERS.

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or other Killedars, should be written by the Sabnis. The Sabnis should put his sign in them. After the Subhedar has sealed it, the Karkhanis should enter it in the daily ledger. He should not put his sign, but the letter should not be despatched without being recorded in the daily ledger.

All inspection and estimate of revenue of the province (under the jurisdiction of the fort) should be made by the Sabnis. This estimate should be entered into the accounts by the Karkhanis. The kaul and the order about the revenue should be issued by the Sabnis. After the Havaldar has put his seal on the papers, the Karkhanis should put his sign of approval.

All accounts of income and expenditure, either in weight or in approximate value (of commodities), should be daily made by the Karkhanis. After the Havaldar has put his seal (on the accounts), the Sabnis should put his sign of approval. The Karkhanis should write all orders of expenditure upon the granary. After the Havaldar has sealed (them), the Sabnis should put his sign of approval.

The distribution of stores, whether according to weight or according to approximate value, should be made by the Karkhanis. The Sabnis's Karkun should be present on the occasion for verification.

All orders for goods or commodities upon the province (under the jurisdiction of the fort) should be issued by the Karkhanis. The Sabnis should levy contribution (when necessary). He should put his sign of approval after the Havaladar has sealed the paper.

The Karkhanis should take charge of female slaves, boy servants, horses or cattle that may come. The Sabnis should put his sign of approval below the seal. If any loss occurs, the Karkhanis should put his sign below the seal.

The Karkhanis should supervise the work when a building is constructed. The Sabnis should inspect the work. Cash and clothes should be distributed among the Karkhanis's men when occasion arises. It should have the approval of the Karkhanis. The distribution of grain should be made by the Karkhanis with the approval of the Sabnis.

All accounts of the naval stores should be written by the Karkhanis's Karkuns. The work should be exacted by him under the supervision of the Sabnis."¹⁰

Thus did the three officers co-operate and serve as checks to one another. Not a single fort of Shivaji could, therefore, be betrayed to his enemies. But all these precautions could not absolutely prevent treason and corruption.

¹⁰ Mawji and Parasnis, *Sabads and Letters*, pp. 130-132.

When Shivaji was absent in the camp of Jai Singh, the entire charge of the fort of Rajgad had, for the time being, fallen on Keso Narayan Sabnis, as there was no Havaladar. Keso Narayan Sabnis, on that occasion, misappropriated a large sum from public funds.¹¹ In 1663 Shivaji postponed an expedition to the Konkan as disquieting information of a rebellion had come from Sinhgad. In a letter dated the 2nd April, 1663, Shivaji writes to Moro Trimbak Peshwa and Abaji Sondev that he was thinking of marching against Namdar Khan in the Konkan, but news arrived from Sinhgad that a revolt had lately taken place in the fort. He had, therefore, to give up his project of marching into the Konkan for the present. The two officers were requested to march at once to Sinhgad with their troops and militia and take charge of the fort. They were further required to make an enquiry about the rebels and report their names to the king.¹²

Shivaji generally stored grains and provisions in large quantities in his forts for consumption during a siege. Towards the close of his career (in the year 1671-72), he decided to have a reserve fund to meet the extraordinary needs of forts beleaguered by the enemy. A paper under his seal drawn in the San Isanne says that Rajashri Chhatrapati Saheb has decided

¹¹ Rajwade, M.I.S., Vol. VIII, p. 7.

¹² Rajwade, M.I.S., Vol. VIII, p. 11.

to raise money from each Mahal in his provinces and watans. This money should form a (reserve) fund, and should be spent only when war with Mughals would break out, and the Mughals lay siege to forts, and if money be not available from any other source, otherwise, this money should not be spent for any other government work. So has the Saheb decided and it has been settled that a sum of one lakh and twenty-five thousand Hons should constitute the reserve fund, and should be raised from the following Mahals and personages at the following rate

Kudal	.	20,000
Rajapur		20,000
Kolen	.	20,000
Dabhol		15,000
Poona		13,000
Nagoji Govind	..	10,000
Jawli	-	5,000
Kalyan		5,000
Bhiwandi		5,000
Indapur	...	5,000
Supa	.	2,000
Krishnaji Bhaskar	...	5,000

It has been decided that the sum of one lakh and twenty-five thousand Hons (thus raised) should be set aside as a reserve fund ¹³

In the same year Shivaji granted a further

sum of one lakh and seventy-five thousand Hons for repairing his principal forts. He observes that the workmen grew discontented as they did not get their wages in time. A considerable sum was on that account set aside for building and repair works alone. The sum of one hundred and seventy-five thousand was thus allotted.¹⁴

Sinhgad	10,000
Sindhudurg	10,000
Vijaidurg	10,000
Suvarnadurg	10,000
Pratapgad	10,000
Purandhar	10,000
Rajgad	5,000
Prachandgad	5,000
Prasiddhagad	5,000
Vishalgad	5,000
Mahipatgad	5,000
Sudhagad	5,000
Lohagad	5,000
Sabalgad	5,000
Shrivardhangad and Manaranjan	3,000
Korigad	2,000
Sarasgad	2,000
Mahidhargad	1,000
Manohargad	7,000
Miscellaneous	
			<hr/> 1,75,000

What arms of defence were supplied to these forts we do not precisely know Shivaji had an artillery department and Orme¹⁵ tells us that "He had previously purchased eighty pieces of cannons and lead sufficient for all his match-locks from the French Director at Surat ' We find mention of matchlockmen and archers in Sabhasad's pages, we have there an account of at least one dashing sally by Murar Bajı Prabhu when Diler Khan laid siege to Purandhar The enemy was sometimes "assailed with rockets, musket-shots, bombs and stones "¹⁶ Scott-Waring says that ' his (Shivaji's) artillery was very contemptible, and he seems seldom to have used it but against the island of Gingerah "¹⁷ But Shivaji's soldiers, in common with the Muhammadans of the Deccan, hurled a curious, but none the less, effective missile against their enemy while labouring up the steep sides of their inaccessible strongholds Fryer saw "on the tops of the Mountains, several Fortresses of *Seva Gi's*, only defensible by Nature, needing no other Artillery but Stones, which they tumble down upon their Foes, carrying as certain destruction as Bullets where they alight "¹⁸ Huge pieces of stone were for this purpose heaped at convenient stations and the Maratha soldiers rolled them down upon their enemy below This

¹⁵ Orme, *Historical Fragments* p 36

¹⁶ Sarkar, *Shivaji* (1st Ed.), p 94.

¹⁷ Scott Waring, p 102 ¹⁸ Fryer, p 123

could hardly check the progress of a determined foe; when this preliminary defence failed, the Marathas sallied out sword in hand and rushed upon the besiegers. But they did not always depend on their valour and gold was often used with very good results when steel failed.

The Havaldar of a fort usually enjoyed a remuneration of 125 Hons a year. Nagoji Bhonsle was appointed Mudradhari of fort Utlur in 1680 on a salary of 150 Hons per year, out of which he had to pay 25 Hons to two servants attached to his office. Krishnaji Surevanshi was appointed Sarnovat of the above-mentioned fort in the same year on an annual salary of 100 Hons. The Havaldar in charge of the buildings in the fort got the same pay as the Mudradhari, and his Mazumdar was paid at the rate of 36 Hons per year. Four TatSarnobats were sent by Shivaji to take charge of the ramparts of Kot Utlur, and they were engaged on 4 Hons and 8 Kaveripak Hons (12 in all) a year. Along with them had been despatched seven *bargirs* on a yearly pay of 9 Hons (3 ordinary Hons and 6 Kaveripak) per head. In a document, dated the 26th July, 1677, we find that Timaji Narayan, a clerk, was appointed as an extra hand for the office work in Fort Valgudanar, on a monthly allowance of three Hons.¹⁹ Besides

the usual remuneration each officer got, according to his rank and the importance of his charge, an additional allowance for palanquin, torch-bearers, personal attendants, sunshades and pages²⁰

The Ramoshis and Parwaris who kept watch lived outside the ramparts and got a very small remuneration

4 *Infantry and Cavalry*

'The Peshwa army consisted mainly of cavalry. The infantry was recruited from Hindusthan and made but a poor impression on an Irish soldier, Col W H Tone. Shivaji's military genius, however, had early perceived the necessity of light infantry and light cavalry in a guerrilla war and hill campaign. His Mawalis and Hetkaris have become famous in the military annals of India. Selected after personal examination by Shivaji himself, each man was trained into an excellent soldier, not by drilling in the parade ground but by the surer method of service in an actual war. 'Shivaji had no idea of allowing his soldiers' swords to rust'²¹ The result was that not only their weapons but the men who wielded them also gained in efficiency.'

²⁰ Chitnis, p. 80.

²¹ Manucci ed. Irvine Vol II, p. 203

Shivaji's infantry was carefully divided into regiments, brigades and divisions. The smallest unit consisted of 9 men and the officer commanding it was called the Naik. The Havaladar of the infantry had five such units under him. Over two or three Havaldars was placed a Jumledar. The officer commanding ten jumlas was styled a Hazari and the Sarnobat of the infantry had seven Hazaris under him. The Jumledar had an annual salary of one hundred Hons and his Sabnis got forty. The Hazari got five hundred Hons per year, and his Sabnis's salary varied from one hundred to one hundred and twenty-five Hons.²² Chitnis informs us that at the time of a marriage or any other ceremony of similar importance in the family, the officers could expect financial help.

The cavalry was divided into two classes, *viz.*, the bargirs and the shiledars. The bargir was equipped with horse and arms by the state, while the shiledar brought his own horse and sometimes came with a body of troops armed and equipped at his own expense. The bargir belonged to the *paga* proper, while the shiledar held a comparatively inferior position. "The strength of the paga," says Sabhasad, "was rendered superior (to that of the shiledar). Shiledars were placed under the jurisdiction of

²² Sabhasad, p. 30. Sen, Siva Chhatrapati, p. 33.

the paga. To none was left independence enough for rebelling. To every horse in the paga was appointed a trooper (bargir); over twenty-five such bargirs was appointed an expert Maratha Havalдар. Five Havalдарs formed a jumla. The Jumledar had a salary of five hundred Hons and a palanquin, and his Majumdar a salary of one hundred to one hundred and twenty-five Hons. For every twenty-five horses were appointed a water-carrier and a farrier. A Hazari was a commander of ten such jumlas. To his office was attached a salary of one thousand Hons, a Mazumdar, a Maratha Karbhari and a Prabhu Kayastha Jamenis; for them was allotted a sum of five hundred Hons. Salary and palanquin were given to each officer according to this scale. Accounts of income and expenditure were made up in the presence of all the four. Five such Hazaris were placed under a Panch Hazari. To him was given a salary of two thousand Hons. A Mazumdar, a Karbhari and a Jamenis were likewise attached to his office. These Panch Hazaris were under the command of the Sarnobat. The administration of the paga was of the same kind. Similarly the different brigadiers of the shiledars also were placed under the command of the Sarnobat.¹²³ Shivaji enlisted in his army not only Hindus

¹²³ Sabhasad, pp. 28-29. Sen, Siva Chhatrapati, pp. 30-31.

but Muhammadans also. A body of seven hundred Pathans offered their services to the Maratha king and Shivaji enlisted them, it is said, in opposition to the majority of his officers. Shivaji pointed out that a king was a king first, and a Hindu or Muhammadan afterwards; and was supported in this wise resolution by an old officer Gomaji Naik Pansambal.²⁴ Shivaji knew quite well that an army, however efficient, could not be expected to operate with success in an enemy country, unless served by an efficient intelligence department. He organised a body of excellent spies, the chief of whom was Bahirji Naik Jadhav. Shivaji was so well served by these intelligent officers that he owed many of his most brilliant successes mainly to the information collected by them. On one occasion his army was saved from utter destruction by Bahirji's knowledge of unfrequented hill tracks.²⁵

Shivaji could never expect to reach the numerical strength of his enemies. But he had detected the defects of the heavily armed Muhammadan soldiery and relied on speed for success against them. He, therefore, never allowed his soldiers to be encumbered with heavy arms or costly camp equipage. Dressed in tight-fitting breeches, cotton jackets and turbans,²⁶

²⁴ Chitnis, p. 33. Sen, Siva Chhatrapati, p. 164.

²⁵ Sabhasad, p. 93. Sen, Siva Chhatrapati, p. 130.

²⁶ Grant Duff, Vol. I, pp. 181-182.

armed mainly with swords both long and short, spears and lances bows and arrows and matchlocks depending mainly on the spoils of war for their subsistence, Shivaji's soldiers were ready to march at a moment's notice. They were so quick both in mobilising and demobilising, that their enemies could hardly expect to get any information of their projects before their actual execution. Though the ordinary soldier was poorly dressed, Shivaji indulged in great expenditure in arming and equipping his body guards. This regiment was divided into units of 20, 30, 40, 60, and 100 men. They were equipped at state expense and were given richly embroidered turbans and jackets of broad cloth, gold and silver ear-rings and wristlets. Their sword-sheaths, guns and spears had silver rings and we may guess what a brilliant sight they offered when marching by the king's palanquin.²⁷

Besides the regular forces Shivaji could in times of emergency call the feudal forces of the Maratha watan-dars. In a kaulnama, published in the Tritiya Sammelan Vritta of the Bharat

²⁷ Sabha-sad p 58. Sen Siva Chhatrapati pp 76 77

Among the weapons in the royal armoury or Jirat Khana Raghubath Pandit not only mentions swords daggers and spears of different descriptions but also shields clubs (gurguz) and battle axes (parashu). The curious reader will find an excellent chapter on arms and armours of the Marathas in 'A description of Indian and Oriental Armour' By the Rt Honble Lord Egerton of Tatten M A London, 1896

Itihas Sanshodhak Mandal, two watandars, Mal Patil and Baji Patil of Birvadi, offered to serve Shivaji, when need arose, like the Mawali Deshmukhs, with ten of their attendants. For their subsistence the watandars expected six Rukas or half an anna per head per diem and they offered to serve in the army as long as the occasion demanded.²³ Unlike the later Peshwas, Shivaji never depended much upon these feudal levies, nor did he prefer the mercenary shiledars, who in certain respects resembled the *condottiere* of medieval Europe, to the bargirs of his paga. It is quite possible that when his power was firmly established, Shivaji did no longer summon these feudal forces.

Shivaji paid his soldiers either in cash or by an assignment on the district governments. He was entirely opposed to payment by jagir. But when any of his soldiers happened to be a cultivator as well, the rent payable by him was

²³ B.I.S.M., Tiritiya Sammelan Vritta, p. 163.

The following account of Shivaji's camp from the pen of the celebrated French Governor Martin is certainly interesting "His Camp is without any pomp and unembarrassed by baggage or women. There are only two tents in it, but of a thick simple stuff, and very small,—one for himself and the other for his minister. The horsemen of Shivaji ordinarily receive two pagodas per month as pay. All the horses belong to him and he entertains grooms for them.....Ordinarily there are three horses for every two men, which contributes to the speed which he usually makes.....This Chief pays his spies liberally, which has greatly helped his conquests by the correct information which they give him." *Indian Historical Records Commission, Proceedings of Meetings, Vol. VI, p. 25.*

deducted from his salary Their pay was never allowed to fall in arrears as in the Peshwa days As Shivaji was strictly punctual in his payment, it was not necessary for him to offer very high salaries \ "For the lower officers and men the pay varied from Rs. 9 to 3 for the infantry, and Rs 20 to 6 in the cavalry, according to the higher or lower rank of the soldier or trooper" ²⁹ /Officers and privates of Shivaji's army were liberally rewarded for distinguished service in war Wounded soldiers got a special allowance according to the nature of their wounds Widows and orphans of soldiers who fell in active service were liberally pensioned by the state and the latter, if major, were enlisted in the royal army /In any case they could expect to enter Shivaji's army whenever they attained majority and in the mean time they were sure of a suitable maintenance ³⁰ Shivaji assembled all his soldiers after the destruction of Afzal's army and rewarded them in the usual manner "The sons of the combatants, who had fallen in the action, were taken into his service He directed that the widows of those who had no sons, should be maintained by (a pension of) half their (husband's) pay The wounded were given rewards of two hundred, one hundred, fifty or twenty-five Hons per man according to the nature of their

²⁹ Ranade, R.M P, 123

³⁰ Sabhasad, p 75 Sen, Siva Chattrapati p 25

wounds. Warriors of renown and commanders of brigades were given horses and elephants in reward. Some were sumptuously rewarded with (ornaments like) bracelets, necklaces, crests, medallions, ear-rings and crests of pearl. Such were the presents conferred on men. Some were rewarded with grants of villages in mokasa." "This practice of rewarding soldiers for meritorious services, and maintaining their widows and orphans by adequate pensions, was continued throughout the Peshwa period."

5. *Military Regulations:*

The Maratha camp during the Peshwa period presented a disreputable spectacle. "Camp," says Elphinstone, "presents to a European the idea of long lines of white tents in the trimmest order. To a Mahratta it presents an assemblage of covering, of every shape and colour, spreading for miles in all directions, over hill and dale, mixed up with tents, flags, trees, and buildings. In Jones's 'History' march means one or more columns of troops and ordnance moving along roads, perhaps, between two hedges; in the Mahratta history horse, foot and dragoons inundating the face of the earth for many miles on every side, here and there a few horse with a flag and a drum mixed with a loose and straggling mass of camels, elephants, bullocks, nautch-girls, fakeers,

and buffoons, troops and followers, lance men and matchlockmen, bunyans and mootasuddies ³¹ Broughton gives a no less disparaging picture of Sindhia's camp Wine was publicly sold and public women accompanied the army to the prejudice of discipline and order ³² This was unthinkable in Shivaji's time No one was allowed to keep in the camp a female slave or dancing girl and any breach of this rule was punished with death Shivaji, a lover of discipline and method, had drawn up for his army a set of wise regulations These have been summed up by Sabhasad in the following lines

"The army should come to cantonments in the home dominions during the rainy season There should be kept stored grains, fodder, medicines, houses for men and stables for horses thatched with grass As soon as the *Dasra* ³³ was over, the army should march out of their quarter At the time of their departure, an inventory should be made, of the belongings of all the men, great or small, in the army and they should start on the expedition For eight months, the forces should subsist (on their spoils), in the foreign territories They should levy

³¹ Elphinstone to Grant Duff quoted in Colebrooke's *Life of Elphinstone* vol II p 137

³² Broughton *Letters from a Maratha Camp* p 21

³³ Scott Waring wrongly supposes The festival of the *Dessara* was instituted by Serajee It was an old practice of the Hindu kings to set on their expedition of conquest on the *Dasra* day

contribution. There should be no women, female slaves, or dancing girls in the army. He who would keep them, should be beheaded. In enemy territories, women and children should not be captured. Males, if found, should be captured. Cows should not be taken. Bullocks should be requisitioned for transport purposes only. Brahmans should not be molested; where contribution had been laid, a Brahman should not be taken as a surety. No one should commit adultery. For eight months, they should be on expedition in foreign countries. On the way back to the barracks in the month of Vaishakh, the whole army should be searched at the frontier of the home dominions. The former inventory of the belongings should be produced. What ever might be in excess, should be valued and deducted from the soldiers' salary. Things of very great value, if any, should be sent to the royal treasury. If any one secretly kept (any thing) and the Sardar came to know (of it), the Sardar should punish him. After the return of the army to their camp an account should be made, and all the Sardars should come to see the Raja, with gold, jewels, clothes, and other commodities. There all the accounts should be explained and the things should be delivered to his Majesty. If any surplus should be found due to the contingents, it should be asked for in cash from His Majesty. Then they should

return to the barrack *Saranjam* should be given to the men who had worked hard in the late campaign. If any one had been guilty of violating the rules or of cowardice, an enquiry should be made and the truth ascertained with the consensus of many and (the offender) should be punished with dismissal. Investigation should be quickly made. For four months they should remain in the barracks, and on the Dasraday they should wait on the Raja. (Then) they should march out to the country, selected for the expedition, by the order of the Raja. Such were the rules of the army.³⁴

These regulations were not designed merely to figure in the statute book, but were strictly enforced. While passing through the kingdom of Golkonda on his way to Tanjore, Shivaji had ordered his soldiers not to harass the people in any way. Whatever they wanted was obtained by peaceful purchase and any breach of law was severely punished. Sabhasad tells us that Shivaji on this occasion had made examples of a few offenders to intimidate others, and his severity had the desired effect. But the spirit of the times was not favourable to strict discipline.³⁵

³⁴ Shabhasad, pp 29-30. Sen Sivachhatrapati, pp 31-33.

³⁵ From the preamble of a treaty it appears that Shivaji's men had carried away a number of men, women, children, cattle besides transport bullocks from Portuguese territories in contravention of Shivaji's military regulations. See Biker, *Collecção de Tratados*, Tomo, IV, pp 131-132 and Sen, *Historical Records at Goa*, p 10.

and although Shivaji's spies seldom failed to bring to his notice all cases of violence and fraud,³⁶ yet it was impossible for him to put a stop to military excesses. In a letter dated the 8th September, 1671, we read how a Maratha soldier had attacked the Sabnis of his regiment with a naked sword.³⁷ On the 23rd July of the next year Shivaji wrote to Dattaji Pant Waknis that the soldiers gave trouble to the pilgrims of the Chaphal fair.³⁸ At Chaphal lived Ramdas, Shivaji's spiritual guide. He was revered throughout Maharashtra as a great saint and an incarnation of the monkey-god Maruti. If soldiers did not behave properly in the precincts of Ramdas's temple, we may easily imagine to what extremes their insolence carried them at safer places. Shivaji, however, could not achieve the impossible. His countrymen had before them the example of the Bijapur army, where discipline was conspicuous by its absence. Shivaji placed before them a high ideal, but an ideal cannot always be forced on an unwilling people at the point of sword. None the less, the great Maratha leader never failed to harangue his soldiers about their duties and responsibilities. In the year 1676 he came to learn that the regiment encamped at Chiplun

³⁶ He had numberless informers about his troops; so that if they kept back any money or goods from account, he forced them to give them up. Scott, *Hist. of the Dekkan*, Vol. II, p. 55.

³⁷ Rajwade, *M.I.S.*, Vol. VIII, p. 20.

³⁸ Bhate, *Sajjangad-wa Samartha Ramdas*, p. 122.

had given great troubles to the people of the neighbourhood. The troops were short of provision and took by force what they wanted. Shivaji, therefore, issued a circular to the Jumledars, Havaldars, and Karkuns of the army reminding them that it was their duty to store sufficient provision in time. "If grain, bread, grass and vegetable were forcibly taken away from the peasant, they would desert the locality. Some of them would die of starvation and your presence would be more unwelcome than that of the Mughals." "Do not give the rayat the least trouble," continues Shivaji, "you have no need to stray out of your camping places. Money has been given to you from the government treasury. Whatever any soldier may want, either grain or vegetable or fodder for the animals, should be purchased from the market. Violence should not be offered to any one on any account. The remarkable document fully illustrates Shivaji's anxiety for the welfare of his people and the good name of his soldiers. The last portion of the letter shows how the minutest details of the army administration did not escape his notice. He admonishes his officers to take special precaution against fire. Soldiers were not to smoke or cook near the haystacks and lamps were to be put out before the men went to bed lest mice dragged the burning wicks and set fire to the haystacks. "If the

haystacks were burnt the necessary hay could not be procured even if the Kunbis were decapitated and the Karkuns harassed. The horses would die of hunger and the cavalry would be ruined."³⁹ Shivaji knew everything about his army, its needs and requirements. He was anxious to secure the welfare of his people and he tried his best to protect them from the violence of his soldiers. We should not be too severe with him if instances of tyranny or oppression took place in spite of his vigilance. We should judge him by what he attempted and not by what he achieved; although his achievements were by no means small.

In spite of his defects the Maratha soldier was a fine fellow. Of short stature and light built he was man for man inferior to the tall and stout Mughal and Deccani Mussulman. But his courage, hardihood, wonderful energy, presence of mind and agility more than compensated for his physical inferiority. Demoralised by the tactics of their elusive adversary, the Bijapuris and the Mughals at last failed to meet him even in the open field on equal terms. Fryer's comparison of the two armies well illustrates the merits and demerits of the contending forces as they struck an intelligent foreign observer. Says the Docter,⁴⁰ "*Seva Gi's Men*

³⁹ Rajwade, M.I.S., Vol. VIII, pp. 23-25.

⁴⁰ Fryer, p. 175.

thereby being fitter for any Martial Exploit, having been accustomed to Fare Hard, Journey Fast, and take little Pleasure But the other will miss of a Booty rather than a Dinner, must mount in state and have their Arms carried before them, and their Women not far behind them with the Masters of Mirth and Jollity, will rather expect than pursue a Foe, but then they stand it out better, for *Seva Gi's* Men care not much for a pitched Field, though they are good at Surprizing and Ransacking, yet agree in this that they are both of stirring Spirits ' It is remarkable that the same love of luxury and comfort characterised the Maratha officers at Panipat While Shivaji did not allow "Whores and Dancing Wenches in his army,"⁴¹ the Maratha army at Panipat was encumbered with a large number of women Broughton says of Daulat Rao Sindhia's soldiers that, "such as think that life is bestowed for superior enjoyments and have a taste for more spirited modes of whiling it away, retire, at the approach of evening, to the arrack shop, or the tent of the prostitute and revel through the night in a state of low debauchery which could hardly be envied by the keenest votary of Comus and his beastly crew " Shivaji's successors had for reasons best known to them suffered these salutary

⁴¹ Fryer, p 174⁴² Broughton p 21

regulations to lapse and the result was disastrous for their army and themselves. The Maratha soldiers declined in morale, discipline and alertness that had made them so formidable under Shivaji's leadership.

CHAPTER IV

ORGANISATION OF THE NAVY

Soon after his conquest of the Konkan, Shivaji found it necessary to organise a navy strong enough to check the raids of the Siddi's fleet on his coast. His fleet consisted mainly of Gallivats and Ghurabs as well as many river crafts of various description. Sabhasad tells¹ us that no less than four hundred Ghurabs, Tarandes, Tarus, Gallivats, Shibads and Pagars were built and organised into two squadrons of 200 vessels. Each squadron was placed under the supreme command of an Admiral, Dariya Sarang, a Muhammadan officer, and Mai Naik, a Bhandari. Dariya Sarang was not the only Muhammadan officer in Shivaji's fleet. Another prominent Muhammadan Admiral, Daulat Khan by name, entered Shivaji's service a few years later. The fleet was in all probability manned mainly by the Kohs and other sea-faring tribes of the Malabar coast. What was their uniform, or whether they had any, we do not know. At

¹ Sabhasad p. 68. Sen, *Siva Chhatrapati*, pp. 93-94.

Malwan, the principal port of Shivaji, there is a statue of the Maratha hero with the peculiar Koli hat on his head.² It will not, therefore, be unfair to suppose that the sailors of Shivaji's fleet generally wore a similar headgear.

Sabhasad tells us that Shivaji's fleet not only harassed the indigenous sea powers of the south, but also plundered the ships and possessions of such European powers as the Portuguese, the Dutch and the English. That Shivaji's navy was a menace to these traders is quite true, but he was not so fortunate in his naval as in his military organisation. He could hardly hold his own against the Siddis in the sea and the numerical strength of his fleet was perhaps highly exaggerated by his son's court historian. Robert Orme informs us that "The fleet of Sevagi had by this time (1675) been increased to fifty-seven sail, of which fifteen were grabs, the rest gallivats, all crowded with men."³ Fryer saw on his way to "Serapatan (Kharepatan), to the South of *Dan de Rajpore*, a Strong Castle of *Seva Gi's* defended a deep Bay, where rode his Navy, consisting of 30 Small Ships and Vessels, the Admiral wearing a White Flag aloft."⁴ Prof. Jadunath Sarkar⁵ points out "that the

² See *Itihas Sangraha*, *Sphuta Lekha*, p. 1

³ Orme, *Historical Fragments*, p. 53.

⁴ Fryer, p. 145.

⁵ Sarkar, *Shivaji*, p. 336.

English reports never put their number above 160, and usually as 60 only" In all probability Shivaji's men-of-war did not exceed 200 in number, but he had a large mercantile navy On land Shivaji depended more on the quality than on the number of his men, on the sea, however his fleet was decidedly inferior to that of the English in efficiency, though not in number The President of the Surat Factory was of opinion that 'one good English ship would destroy a hundred of them without running herself into great danger'⁶ This weakness was mainly due to the lack of good artillery as well as the want of a naval tradition

The main strength of the Maratha fleet consisted in the gallivats and the ghurabs, vessels peculiar to the Malabar coast The ghurabs and the gallivats of the Angria's fleet have been thus described by Robert Orme 'The grabs have rarely more than two masts, although some have three those of three are about 300 tons burthen but the others are not more than 150 they are built to draw very little water, being very broad in proportion to their length, narrowing however from the middle to the end, where instead of bows they have a prow, projecting like that of a Mediterranean galley, and covered with a strong deck level with the main

⁶ (F R Surat 56 26 No) quoted in Sarkar's Shivaji p 339

⁷ Military Transactions (2nd Ed) Vol I pp 408 409

deck of the vessel, from which, however, it is separated by a bulkhead which terminates the fore-castle : as this construction subjects the grab to pitch violently when sailing against a head sea, the deck of the prow is not enclosed with sides as the rest of the vessel is, but remains bare, that the water which dashes upon it may pass off without interruption : on the main deck under the fore-castle are mounted two pieces of cannon of nine or twelve pounders, which point forwards through the port holes cut in the bulkhead, and fire over the prow ; the cannon of the broadside are from six to nine pounders. The gallivats are large row-boats built like the grab, but of smaller dimensions, the largest rarely exceeding 70 tons : they have two masts of which the mizen is very slight ; the main mast bears only one sail, which is triangular and very large, the peak of it when hoisted being much higher than the mast itself. In general the gallivats are covered with a spar deck, made for lightness of bamboos split, and these only carry petteraroes fixed on swivels in the gunnel of the vessel ; but those of the largest size have a fixed deck on which they mount six or eight pieces of cannon, from two to four pounders : they have forty or fifty stout oars and may be rowed four miles an hour." It is not difficult to understand why such clumsy vessels manned by inexperienced sailors should not be able to contend with the English

on their peculiar element on equal terms. But we should note that Shivaji's sailors had on more than one occasion attacked Portuguese men-of-war with success.

Of the other vessels mentioned by Sabhasad the *tarande* was a sailing vessel of large dimension; the *shibad* was a flat-bottomed two-masted craft without any deck, and the *pagar* was only a well smoothed canoe. Most probably some of these crafts belonged to the mercantile navy. It may not be out of place to note here that Shivaji had a strong mercantile fleet that plied between his ports and the coast towns of Arabia. Unlike many of his contemporaries the great Maratha had realised that a strong naval power without a strong mercantile navy was an impossibility.

Besides doing police work against the Siddi's pirate fleet Shivaji's navy was also employed in taking possession of foreign vessels wrecked on his coast and collecting duties from trading ships. In Shivaji's time it was considered the duty of the state to regulate prices of articles.⁸ This was done mainly by regulating export and import duties.

The naval spirit roused by Shivaji did not die with him. The Angrias maintained the naval reputation of Maharashtra till the destruction of their fleet by the combined efforts

⁸ Rajwade, M I.S., Vol. VIII, pp. 21-23,

of the Peshwa and the English. The Peshwas also had a strong fleet for defending the western coast. The mercantile spirit of the Maratha traders also found a greater scope with the expansion of the Maratha empire. In Shivaji's time merchant-men plied between Arabia and the Malabar coast; during the Peshwa period the Maratha traders actually settled in Arabian coast towns like Muscat⁹ and their trading vessels visited China. The naval policy of Shivaji therefore bore ample fruit, though long after the Maratha Alfred had passed away.

⁹ See Book, II.

CHAPTER V

OTHER ASPECTS OF ADMINISTRATION

1. *Administration of Justice.*

Shivaji's Maharashtra still retained her simple primitive method of administering justice. Elaborate rules of procedure, volumes of codified law, costly court houses were absolutely unknown. The village elders met in the Patil's office or before the village temple or under the spreading branches of a sacred fig tree to hear civil suits and administer common-sense justice. Some of these amateur judges were certainly illiterate, for they put their signs of *nangar*, *tagri*, *ghana*, or *katyar* whenever a signature was necessary. But they must have been conversant with the customary laws of their land. The *balutas* or village artisans were frequently summoned before the Panchayet to aid the judges with their invaluable knowledge of village history or tradition. But when no evidence was available, divine aid was freely invoked and the Marathas of those days had so much faith in the potency of truth that they fearlessly and sometimes with impunity grasped a red hot iron ball

and plunged their hand into boiling ghi or oil to draw out a piece of metal or '*rava*.' These were not the only popular ordeals; ordeals by water, libation water, lamp and circumambulation of a sacred temple, were also known. The unknown author of *Shivaji Prataap* describes a peculiar ordeal of which we find no other instance. In an alleged case of adultery, two drops of blood, one each from the veins of the man and the woman, were taken and dropped into a cauldron full of boiling oil. But lo! they would not mingle; so the lady was honourably acquitted. For all we know this ordeal possibly had never been practised.

Criminal cases were heard in the first instance by the Patil, a gentleman without much learning and hence unlikely to be familiar with the injunctions of the old Hindu law-givers like Manu and Yajnavalkya. But the Brahman Nyayadhish who heard appeals in both civil and criminal suits was as a matter of course well versed in the *shastras*. The Hazir Majalasis to hear final appeals perhaps met more often in the days of Shivaji and his immediate successors than during the Peshwa regime. And we very frequently come across two functionaries who seem to have silently slipped away from existence during the Peshwa days. These were the Sabha Naik or Judge President and the Mahaprashnika or Chief Interrogator whose duty appears to have been

to examine and cross-examine the parties. Whether they were elected by their brother judges or nominated by the king we do not know. Perhaps an elderly member who commanded the respect of his co-villagers, assumed some sort of superiority over others as a matter of course and a younger member of the Panchayet perhaps volunteered to examine the parties in order to save his colleagues from that trouble¹.

2 Education

Shivaji fostered and encouraged education in an indirect way. There was no organised education department under him. State-founded or state-aided schools were unknown. Learned scholars as in the days of yore attracted eager students from all parts of the country and the schools which thus grew formed the only centres of culture. Shivaji indirectly encouraged the foundation of these schools by making large grants in money or land to all the distinguished scholars of his time. Similar grants were made to physicians of note irrespective of their caste and creed and so the votaries of the science of medicine were permitted to carry on their studies and humanitarian endeavours in comparative ease and security. It was one of the duties of the

¹ The old method of administering justice was practically unaffected by the rise of the Peshwas and will be treated at a greater length in Book II.

Pandit Rao to test the merit of and assign a proper inam to the deserving candidates. This system of Dakshana grant for the encouragement of learning has survived Shivaji and the Peshwas.

Many poets and literary men were attracted to Shivaji's court. Among them the most well known was Bhushan the Hindi poet. Jayaram the author of *Parnal Parvat Grahanaakhyan* and Paramananda the author of *Shiva Bharat* wrote in Sanskrit. Their poetical efforts were munificently rewarded as were those of the celebrated ballad writers of the time, Ajnandas and Tulshidas.

3. *Shivaji's Achievements :*

We have seen that the civil and the military regulations of Shivaji had been framed mainly to meet the needs of his times and in this respect they were eminently successful. Engaged in a life-long war against his Muhammadan neighbours, Shivaji could not give his people that peace and tranquillity so necessary for the growth of commerce and industry. But he had reformed the revenue system of his kingdom, organised a careful survey of his lands, and substituted a fairly enlightened and efficient government for the tyranny of semi-independent revenue officers. He had organised an army that shattered the foundation of the Mughal Empire in the South. He was the father of the Maratha navy and the mercantile policy inaugurated by him had a very

bright future / Born in 1627 he died at the age of fifty-three only, and during the short reign of thirty-five years he had not only founded a kingdom but created a nation. Yet we cannot admit that Shivaji was the most original of Indian rulers. For his revenue policy he was indebted to Malik Ambar. Some of his military regulations were copied from the Adilshahi code, and the system of branding horses of the cavalry was known in Hindustan even in Allauddin Khilji's time. Shivaji however enforced strict method where formerly there was a lack of it. The slightest irregularity did not escape his keen eyes and in personal attention to the minute details of his government perhaps he was not inferior to his great Mughal rival. We find him framing regulations about the proper style of official letters, we find him deliberating about the necessity of punctual payment of masons. He urges his cavalry officers to beware of the careless use of fire in the camp. They are warned to be more careful about storing hay and fodder for their animals. To the governor of a port he issues instructions for regulating the price of salt and nuts, and we cannot but wonder when we find the same man starting a literary movement which so vitally influenced the character of Marathi language. He employed an erudite scholar to find out Sanskrit synonyms for current Persian words and the *Rajavyavahar Kosh* was compiled.

It has often been asked why did so many of Shivaji's institutions fail to survive him. ~ Prof. Jadunath Sarkar attributes his failure to build up an enduring state mainly to caste rivalry. The caste system is not new to India and whatever may be its effects on the Maratha state, it cannot be said that the fate of Shivaji's civil and military institutions was much affected by it. ~ The great bane of the country had been feudalism or the jagir system and this flourished in spite of caste rivalry. Shivaji had tried his best to abolish feudalism, but the great defect of his government was its autocratic character. Its success depended on the man at the helm. ~ Sambhaji was an incompetent ruler and it did not take him long to undo his father's work. Rajaram was unable to effect or attempt any reform. Driven from his paternal home and besieged in the fort of Jinji, he had to conciliate his friends in all possible ways. His officers offered to conquer principalities in enemy possession on the sole condition that they should be allowed to hold their conquest in jagir. Thus ~ Rajaram helped to revive feudalism and once it was revived, Shivaji's institutions were doomed to extinction. In the turmoil of war every law was held in abeyance and when a new order dawned after the struggle for existence was over, Shivaji's institutions had become a memory. Further concessions to the feudal chiefs had to

be made during the civil war between Shahu and his Kolhapur cousin. And although feudalism was in theory condemned in a work on polity attributed to Ramchandra Pant Amatya, in practice every thing was done to foster its growth. After the death of Shahu the monarchy suffered still more in power and prestige and the Peshwas became the real heads of the state. But they did not or could not suppress the ever-growing feudal tendencies and created, either from policy or from need, new fiefs for their friends and followers. The result was that the central government grew weaker as the feudal chiefs waxed stronger and ultimately the whole fabric collapsed with a tremendous crash at the slightest collision with a western power. Both the Brahman and the Non-Brahman Barons equally contributed to that collapse and caste prejudices had very little to do with the decline and fall of the Maratha empire. Shivaji's civil institutions disappeared with the rejection of his ideal.

BOOK II
THE ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM OF
THE PESHWAS

army on that fateful day was not left without a biography. As in the old days stirring accounts of national triumphs and national disasters were supplied by those popular bards—the *shahirs*, who wrote not for the learned few but for the teeming masses toiling in the fields and forests, hills and dales, towns and hamlets of the Maratha country. But fortunately we have not to rely on the beautiful ballads of the shahirs or on the charming narrative of the chroniclers for an account of the administrative institutions of the Peshwas. We have more reliable materials in the contemporary records and state papers, carefully and methodically preserved in the *Huzur Daftar* or imperial secretariat at Poona.

The Peshwa *Daftar* of Poona has not yet been thrown open to the general public, but the inquisitive student gets a glimpse of its treasures in the valuable selections published by the Deccan Vernacular Translation Society under the able editorship of a band of erudite scholars. The selections were made by Rao Bahadur Ganesh Chimnaji Wad, but they were published after his death. The nine volumes of *Selections from the Satara Rajas' and the Peshwas' Diaries* edited by Parasnis, Sane, Marathe and Joshi supply information about all the branches of the Peshwas' Government, their social and religious activities not excluded, as the following headings and subheadings under which the papers of the

second Baji Rao's regime have been arranged will show :

1. Political Matters
2. Military Administration
 - (i) Army
 - (ii) Forts
3. Land Revenue and its administration
 - (i) Survey and assessment of land
 - (ii) Mamlatdars, Kamavisdars, Farmers of land revenue and khots
4. Other Taxes
 - Taxes on sales and purchases of things
5. Village and district Watandars
6. Other revenue officers
7. Administration of Justice
 - (i) Civil
 - (ii) Criminal
 - (a) Conspiracy and treason
 - (b) Murder and suicide
 - (c) Dacoity
 - (d) Forgery
 - (e) Adultery
 - (f) Miscellaneous offences
 - (iii) Police
 - (iv) Prison
8. Misconduct of Government officers and Jagirdars

9. Grants and continuance of Inams, Allowances, Watans, etc.

(i) Grants

(a) For service done or injury received
or as a mark of favour

(b) For charitable purposes and in
fulfilment of vows

10. Postal service

11. Medicine and surgery

12. Mint and coins

13. Prices and wages

14. Slaves

15. Religious and Social matters

16. Public Festivals

17. Poona and its suburbs

18. The Peshwa's tour

It is needless to add that in these selections not a single department of the Poona government has been left unillustrated and no student of the Maratha administrative system can do without these nine volumes of the *Peshwas' Diaries*. They are however not without defects as was pointed out by Mr. V. K. Rajwade. For unavoidable reasons, over which the editors had no control, some of the papers have not been published in full, and the uninitiated reader sometimes finds it difficult to grasp the purport of a mutilated record. The English summaries given in the

footnote are not only very brief but sometimes hopelessly inaccurate. Rao Bahadur D. B. Parasnis further drew upon the Poona records and published two more volumes in his *Itihas Sangraha*. *Peshwe Daftaratil Nivadak Kagad Patre* deals with military matters alone and *Peshwe Daftaratil Sanada Patre* throws fresh light on both the civil and the military branches of the administration. I may here add that the seven volumes of *Itihas Sangraha* abound in original records of the greatest importance.

To Rao Bahadur D. B. Parasnis and Mr. P. V. Mawji we are indebted for four volumes of *Selections from the Government Records in the Alienation Office of Poona, viz., Sanads and Letters, Vatan Patre Nivad Patre, Kaifyatyadi and Treaties and Agreements*. Many valuable papers have been published in Parasnis's *Bharat-varsha*, Rajwade's *Marathyanchya Itihasanchi Sadhanen*, Sane's *Patre Yadi Bagaire*, the *Ahavals* and *Itivrittas* of the Bharat Itihas Sanshodhak Mandal and the *Itihas Ani Aitihasik*.

It is impossible to deal exhaustively with all the publications on this comprehensive subject within the short compass of a small chapter, but the works of the late Vasudev Shastri Vaman Shastri Khare of Miraj deserve more than a passing notice. He is by no means the only scholar to bring to light the important family papers of the Sardars and Jagirdars. K. N. Sane and V. K.

Rajwade were his predecessors in this line and Mr. Apte, the editor of the *Chandrachud Daftar* is expected to be an able successor. But neither Sane nor Rajwade deemed it necessary to arrange chronologically the papers they were going to publish. The records were placed before the public as they were discovered without any arrangement and the absence of an index only adds to the difficulties of the student who has to grope through these volumes for any particular information. Vasudeb Shastri Khare's *Aitihasik Lekha Sangraha*, the twelfth volume of which was posthumously published a few months ago, offers to the wearied reader an agreeable surprise. The records are chronologically arranged and although no index is supplied its absence is more than compensated by an excellent introduction to each section which informs the reader what the succeeding papers have to tell him. In these twelve volumes the late Pandit Khare published for the first time the important papers of the Patwardhan chiefs who served for all practical purposes as the Warden of the Southern Marches for so many years. No less important to the student of the administrative system of the Peshwas is Khare's *Ichalkaranji Sansthancha Itihas*. A very useful compilation is Mr. Apte's *Itihas Manjari* in which almost all the more important published documents have been included.

2. *Modern Marathi Works :*

From these old records we may for a short while turn to biographical and historical works of modern Maratha scholars. The foremost place in this section must be assigned to Mr. G. S. Sardesai's *Marathi Riyasat* the fifth volume of which is shortly expected. Among the biographies may be mentioned Nattu's Life of Mahadaji Sindhia, Vasudev Shastri Khare's Nana Fadnavis, Atre's Malhar Rao Holkar, Rajadhyaksha's Jivba Dada Bakshi and Parasnis's Brahmendra Swami. In the appendices of the last two works have been published some important contemporary letters not available elsewhere. Bapat's Life of the first Baji Rao is a popular work which does not aim at historical accuracy and space does not permit me to mention other works of this type. Atre's *Ganv Gada* deals with village communities and Kelkar's *Maratha va Ingraj* treats among other subjects of the administrative system.

3. *Portuguese and Persian :*

The Portuguese records, though specially important for military and the naval organisation of the Marathas, occasionally give us an insight into the religious, commercial and domestic policy of the Peshwas. The later Persian histories

and Rajput Hindi, and Gurumukhi records are important to a student of the political history of the Marathas. He cannot afford to be indifferent to such works as *Siyaru-l Mutakhirin* or *Ibratnama*, but these are not so indispensable to a student of the administrative system, though a knowledge of the Muhammadan revenue system prevailing in the neighbouring provinces is always helpful.

4. *English Sources :*

Next in importance to the Maratha records are the published and unpublished English records. To the unpublished English papers in the Imperial Records Department I can here make only a passing reference. We get there a detailed account of the Peshwa's revenue compiled by no less a personage than Elphinstone about four years before the final collapse of the Peshwa's powers. We may sometimes learn a good deal about the popular superstitions of the times from the confidential reports of the English diplomats. But for our purpose the most important document is Elphinstone's *Report on the Territories recently conquered from the Paishwa*. This is a veritable mine of information and as Elphinstone had personal knowledge of the Maratha administration, his views command our greatest respect. But unfortunately he saw the Peshwa's government at its worst and probably all his remarks were

Compton and Lewis Ferdinand Smith, while a very interesting account of the Angria's navy has been supplied by Clement Dunning, whose *History of the Indian Wars* was published as early as 1737. Space does not permit me to enter into a critical examination of these works here and I can only barely mention such well-known works as Grant Duff's *History of the Mahrattas*, Forrest's *Selections from Statepapers* and Ranade's *Introduction to the Satara Rajas' and Peshwas' Diaries*.

This chapter should not be considered exhaustive. It aims to indicate the nature of the materials used in the following pages, and it is expected to be helpful to students who seek further information on the subject.

CHAPTER I

THE PERIOD OF TRANSITION

In their political aims and ideals the Peshwas differed from the founder of the Maratha greatness. Shivaji tried to organise a genuine national movement, and as the avowed leader of the regenerated Hindus of the south, he could not even in theory acknowledge the supremacy of the great Mughal. Consequently when he had to submit to the terms imposed on him by Raja Jai Singh, he got the stipulated *mansab* for his son Sambhaji, then a boy of seven, but did not degrade himself to the position of a Mughal *mansabdar*. This distinction will appear as too subtle to the modern mind, but it succeeded in soothing the easy scruples of a time when conscience was not so rigorous and exacting. After his coronation he tried his utmost to wipe off all traces of Muhammadan influence from his government and his old officers got new Sanskrit designations. Sambhaji cared only for pleasure, and during the stormy days succeeding his death, the Marathas were too busy to care for these comparatively minor things; they had to fight for their existence.

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Shahu, however, was brought up by the Grand Mughal in the Mughal court. He had witnessed the splendour of that court in its palmy days, and was dazzled, hypnotised, almost blinded by the Mughal sun, the great Alamgir, whom he had seen face to face. When Shahu returned to occupy his ancestral throne, he was not in a position to appreciate the true significance of the great movement of which his celebrated grandfather was the leader. In his childhood he must have heard from his Mughal teachers that the 'mountain rat' was nothing but a powerful bandit. He could understand Shivaji the empire-builder, but Shivaji the national leader was to him an enigma, a mystery not even vaguely understood, and he did not hesitate to accept a *mansab* of 10,000 from the feeble hands of Farrukhsiyar. Shahu promised to pay to the imperial treasury an annual tribute "for the Surdeshmookhee or ten per cent. of the whole revenue, he bound himself to protect the country, to suppress every species of depredation, to bring thieves to punishment, or restore the amount stolen, and to pay the usual fee of six hundred and fifty-one per cent. on the annual income, for the hereditary right of Surdeshmookh : for the grant of the Chouth, he agreed to maintain a body of 15,000 horse in the Emperor's service to be placed at the disposal of the Soobehdars, Foujdars and officers in the different districts ; but upon the grant of the Chouth, no fee was to

be paid. The Carnatic and the Soobehs of Beeja-poor and Hyderabad, which were then overrun by the partisans of Sumbhajee, Raja of Kolapoor, Shao promised to clear of plunderers and to make good every loss sustained by the inhabitants of those provinces from the date of the final settlement of the treaty."¹

This arrangement was no doubt convenient to him in more than one way, but it was not merely expediency that led Shahu to make a formal acknowledgment of the Mughal supremacy when he was in a position to defy it most effectively. He was sincere in his belief in the legitimacy of the Mughal claim and it is said that Shahu protested when the Delhi Darwaja gate of Poona was built by the Peshwa, that a gate facing the north would mean defiance and insult to the Badshah. What Shahu sincerely believed, the Peshwas found most convenient to continue. Further, they actually tried to derive what advantage they could from that policy. When Malwa was conquered by Maratha arms, they did not hesitate to have their claims strengthened by an imperial grant. The celebrated Mahadaji Sindhia simply followed this traditional policy when he obtained for his master, the Peshwa, the farman of *Vakil-i-mutluq*. The great Balaji Janardan, better known as Nana Fadnavis, in his

¹ Grant Duff (Oxford Edition), Vol. I, p. 334.

autobiography referred to the Emperor as *prithvipati*, master of the world², in a letter from Ganesh Krishna, dated 1676 shaka, the Emperor is called *Sarbabhauma*³ and the unknown author of the ballad of the battle of Kharda thought that the Emperor was still in a position to order Daulat Rao Sindhia (the Shinde left Hindustan and Guzrat and came to the south, the Badshah ordered him)⁴

1 *The Raja of Satara*

Next to the Emperor in status came the Raja of Satara, the lineal descendant of Shivaji, and the nominal head of the Maratha Empire. It was he who appointed the Peshwa and the other hereditary officers of state like the Pratinidhi, Sachiv, Sumanta, etc. This appointment or grant of clothes resembles in spirit the ceremony of papal coronation that the Emperors had to undergo at Rome, and was like it, nothing but a time-honoured form. This form was

* Nana Fadnavis's Autobiography in Sane's *Patre Yadi Bagaire* p. 23.

² Sane, *Patre Yadi Bagaire* p. 23.

³ Kharda Ballad in Sane's *Patre Yadi Bagaire* p. 36. Aurangzeb is styled *Sarbabhaum* in a letter of Yesubai, wife of Sambhaji, written during her captivity in the Mughal camp. It is noteworthy that Peshwa Bajirao I refrained from causing any harm to the Imperial metropolis when it lay at his mercy and the reasons assigned by him for this conduct clearly shows how the Marathas still respected the weak Emperor. For this interesting letter see Parasnis *Brahmendra Samaj*, part II, pp. 21-31.

strictly observed so long as the Maratha Empire lasted. Even Baji Rao II, careless as he was of his Sardars' rights, could not or did not venture to do away with this formal ceremony. In his *daftar* has been found a document, an account of state expenses, which begins as follows :

“Abaji Krishna Shelukar went to Satara to bring from Shrimant Maharaj Rajashri Chhatrapati Swami, the clothes of peshwaship for Rajashri Baji Rao Raghunath Rao and brought the clothes on the 3rd Jamadilakhar.”⁵ It should be noted here that unlike the Pope, the Chhatrapati Maharaj raised no trouble about granting his sanction to the authority already seized, even if the grantees were usurpers. Thus Raghunath Rao, Chimnaji Raghunath transformed by Parashram Bhau Patwardhan into Chimnaji Madhava, and Vinayak Rao, son of Amrit Rao, had no difficulty in getting the clothes of peshwaship, although they could not retain the authority which they aspired to, or (as in the case of Chimnaji) which was thrust on an unwilling victim of state conspiracy. In the case of the other chiefs, the hereditary successors of the members of Shivaji's Ashta Pradhan Council, the saranjam or jagir was invariably granted by the Peshwas, but they were either referred to the state prisoner at Satara for grant of clothes of

⁵ Peshwas' Diaries, Vol. V, Baji Rao II, p. 14.

their office, or this mark of royal sanction was procured for them by the Peshwa's agent. Thus Madava Rao I writes to Achyut Rao Ganesh (1762-1763) that "the pratinidhiship as before has been granted to Shrinivas Pandit and he has been accordingly sent to the Raja to receive clothes of honour."⁶

Similarly when Parashram Shrinivas succeeded his father, a similar letter was written by the second Madhava Rao to Babu Rao Krishna (1777-78) "The command of God has reached Shrinivas Pandit Pratinidhi (*i.e.*, he is dead), the clothes of the post have to be given to his son; clothes of honour, a head-dress and arms, have therefore been sent with Sadashiv Anant; request the Shrimant Maharaj Rajashri Swami to give the aforesaid personage the Pratinidhi's dress of honour."⁷ And with this recommendation were also sent a dress of honour, a head-dress and arms to be given to the nominee; perhaps in consideration of the poverty of the Raja. The same Peshwa had again to write three letters to Krishna Rao Anant, Babu Rao Krishna and Nilkantha Rao at Satara in connection with the appointment of Jivan Rao Viththal to the office of Sumanta (1785-86), requesting them to procure a dress of honour and a sanad for his watan and saranjam, although the

⁶ Peshwas' Diaries, Vol IX, Madhava Rao I, p 110

⁷ Peshwas' Diaries, Vol. IV, p 158.

newly-appointed officer had already got both sanad and dress of honour from the Peshwa.⁸ But Madhava Rao II apparently did not consult the Raja's pleasure when Ramchandra Raghunath was appointed Pandit Rao.⁹ Baji Rao II, however, did not omit to procure a dress of honour for the new incumbent to the Sachiv's post when the old Sachiv Shankar Rao Pandit died (1799-1800), and was succeeded by his adopted son Chimnaji Shankar. "A letter to Krishna Rao Narayan to the effect that the command of God reached Sankar Rao Pandit Sachiv, father of Chimnaji Shankar, in the year Tisa Tisen. The latter was adopted by the Sachiv in his lifetime. Therefore the Surnis's dress of honour is to be given to him according to the old custom. A separate list of the clothes of honour is sent. Accordingly you should request the Maharaja and deliver the dress of honour to Krishnaji Bhagavant, a Karkun sent from the Sarkar. The latter will hand it over to Chimnaji Shankar."¹⁰ Two letters of the

⁸ "In the year Tisa Sabain, Jivan Rao Vitththal got the watan and saranjam of the office of Sumanta with the customary dress of honour. Then a letter was written to you to request Shrimant Maharaj Rajashri Chhatrapati to give the Sumanta's dress of honour to Jivan Rao and to get the sanad of the watan and saranjam of that office in his name: upon that a dress of honour was given to him. A sanad was to be procured but that was not done; therefore this letter is now sent; please give him a sanad for the saranjam and watan he is enjoying." Peshwas' Diaries, Vol. IV, p. 177.

⁹ Peshwas' Diaries, Vol. IV, p. 176.

¹⁰ Peshwas' Diaries, Vol. V, p. 77.

second Madhava Rao addressed to the Bhonsle of Nagpore clearly show that, jealous as that chief was of the Peshwa's authority, he also could not think of dispensing with royal sanction of his succession to the hereditary dominions.

"A letter to Shivaji Bhonsle Sena Saheb Subha; Shrimant Maharaj Rajashri Chhatrapati Swami being kindly disposed towards you, has appointed you Sena Saheb Subha and has given the dress of honour and jewels of that office with a shield, a sword, a seal and an elephant. These presents have been sent to you; accept them on an auspicious day" (1774-75).¹¹

"To Raghuji Bhonsle Sena Saheb Subha: you have been appointed Sena Saheb Subha by the order of the Shrimant Maharaj Rajashri Chhatrapati Swami; you should, therefore, serve the government with devotion and carry on the administration of your province and army" (1779-80).¹²

Although the vanity of being addressed by the Peshwa for sanads and dresses of honour was still left to him, the position of the Raja of Satara was worse than miserable. Perhaps the meanest of the Maratha Sardars would not have liked to change place with him. An organic part of the state, he had not the ordinary right of an ordinary man of dismissing and

¹¹ P. D., Vol. IV, p. 196

¹² P. D., Vol. IV, p. 198.

appointing his servants. He had the mortification of seeing his household controlled by an officer of the Peshwa. Even his *khijmatgars* were appointed and sent from Poona. Five *khijmatgars* were sent to fort Satara¹³ for service with the Maharaja by Madhava Rao I in 1767-68.

His personal attendants applied for promotion or increase in remuneration, not to him but to the Peshwa. Sometimes, when in blissful oblivion of his position, he issued orders of arrest or imprisonment, he ran the risk of undergoing the humiliation of seeing them countermanded. In the year 1797-98, Ganesh Anant and Babu Rao Krishna were arrested in connection with some disturbance that took place in the fort of Satara. The former was fined, the latter was imprisoned with his family and his property was attached. On an appeal to the Peshwa, the order was set aside and they were restored to their former offices.¹⁴

¹³ P. D., Vol. IX, p. 53.

¹⁴ "Krishnaji Anant Karkun, fort Satara, informs the Huzur that some disturbance took place in the aforesaid fort last year, when some people misrepresented facts to Shrimant Maharaj Rajashri Chhatrapati Swami and his brother Ganesh Anant, an employee in the fort, was imprisoned and money was taken from him.....Therefore do not take money from him and no dunning should be made for payment. He had not got his salary for the year saman tisen, pay that. Formerly two men from the shibandi (force) of the fort worked under him. Therefore appoint two men to work under him and obtain, as before, the work from his hand and give him his salary." "Last year a disturbance took place in the fort of Satara. Then Shrimant Maharaj Rajashri Chhatrapati imprisoned Babu Rao Krishna and his family and attached his house and Inam village. Detailed

This humiliating subordination was not compensated by plenty, and to the unfortunate puppet was not granted even the mean satisfaction of forgetting his imprisonment in the midst of luxury and pomp. The account of his household was checked with more scrutiny perhaps than that of any department of the Peshwa's government. Strict regulations were framed even about such minute details as the grains required for the Raja's stables¹⁵ The Chhatrapati lacked even the very necessities of a middle class Maratha with a slender income. We learn from a document of Madhava Rao I's time that the Maharaja had not even a garden for growing green vegetables, and that excellent prince ordered that a garden suitable for vegetables should be given him. The same paper goes on to say that the Maharaja had no pasture ground for his horses either¹⁶ Madhava Rao I also sanctioned an allowance of Rs 80 per month for two dancing girls, Hira and Achhi by name, for the singing

items about the removal of the attachment (then follows) " Peshwa's Diaries, Vol V, pp 4-5. The disturbance probably took place in connection with the Raja's attempt to assert his independence in 1798 at the instigation of Nana Fadnavis.

¹⁵ Venkoji Mankeshwar and Vishnu Narhar are informed that requisition for the grain required for horses in the Raja's stable should be made every day. In making the requisition the number of horses newly arrived and that of horses sent away should be taken into consideration. The Huzur has come to know that instead of doing that you get from the Pratinidhi grain for eight days at a time. Peshwa's Diaries, Vol IX, p 51.

¹⁶ P.D., Vol IX, pp. 53-54

establishment of his so-called master and an allowance was made for the fattening diet of a pet leopard.¹⁷

Madhava Rao II or his chief adviser was not so indulgent. Although he appointed Nimbaji Pawar on a salary of Rs. 12, every two months, for training the Raja's son in the art of fencing,¹⁸ and granted saranjam to each of the two queens and to each of their two daughters, he refused to grant a sum adequate for the repair of an aqueduct which conveyed water to the palace of Satara. It was represented that two or three thousand rupees would be necessary for the work, but the Peshwa did not grant more than Rs. 800. It may be objected that perhaps the agent at Satara had over-estimated the necessary cost and the Peshwa naturally reduced it to a more reasonable amount, but we do not observe the same attitude so far as his other grants and expenses were concerned.¹⁹ The poor Maharaja, however could not do without praying to the Peshwa. So poor and helpless was he, that although about four years had elapsed since his marriage, he could not make the customary

¹⁷ P.D., Vol. IX, p. 55.

¹⁸ P.D., Vol. IV, p. 34.

¹⁹ To Krishna Rao Anant : a pipe conveys water to the palace of Satara from Yavateshwar ; it is damaged at different places ; two to three thousand Rupees will be necessary for repairing it. You have written to Sadashiv Anant to request for the grant of the above sum from the Sarkar. He accordingly prayed for the grant, but it will not be convenient to give so much. But as the work is urgent, a grant of Rs. 800 is made for repairing the pipe. P.D., Vol. IV, p. 34.

present of land to his sister until a grant of sixty bighas had been made for that purpose by the Peshwa in 1782-83²⁰

Poor and powerless as he was, the Raja of Satara was a political factor of no mean importance. Though slighted in private, he was honoured in public. The Peshwas and other chiefs paid *nazar* to him and to his relatives whenever they went to pay their respects to the Chhatrapati or when the king was pleased to honour them with a royal visit in their camp. Large sums were spent on occasions likely to attract public notice. When a son was born to queen Anandi Bai, the eldest wife of the reigning Raja (1792-93), Madhava Rao II ordered Rs. 1,000 to be spent for distribution of sugar and other ceremonies. In 1807-8 the Peshwa granted Rs. 25,000 for the funeral obsequies of Raja Shahu. In the same year more than Rs. 8,000 was spent at the time of the new king's coronation, and the Peshwa Bajirao II ordered 100 shots to be fired from a cannon to celebrate that occasion. In 1809-10 more than Rs. 17,000 was spent on the occasion of the royal marriage and some other ceremonies of minor importance. The servants and relatives of the king were

²⁰ Maharaja Rajashri Chhatrapati Swami married twice, but his sister Saubhagyavati Santubai Mahadik did not get on those occasions the customary present of Karavali-pan. Therefore a new inam of 60 Bighas in all ($\frac{1}{2}$ a Chavar of 1st, 2nd, and 3rd class land) is made to her with all dues and rights assigned to it. P D, Vol. IV, p. 37.

exempted from taxes and customs duties, and sometimes a small pension in the form of land or cash was granted to his near relatives.²¹

To keep up appearances in public, Satara was allowed to enjoy comparative security in the midst of military depredation and public plunder. William Henry Tone, an Irish officer in the service of Baji Rao Raghunath, observes in his *Letter to an Officer on the Madras Establishment* (published 1799). "The country circumjacent to Sattarah enjoys an exemption from military depredations of all kinds; and whenever any chief enters this district, all the ensigns of royalty are laid aside, and the nagara or the great drum of the empire ceases to beat."

Twice had Nana Fadnavis attempted to bring the peculiar political position of the Raja of Satara into use, and twice he failed. When Mahadaji Sindhia, jealous of Nana's influence at the Peshwa's court, and perhaps with an ulterior object of putting himself at the head of the Maratha empire with the Peshwa as a useful and convenient puppet in his hands,

²¹ For the family of Narsingh Rao Guzar, brother-in law of Shrimant Rajashri Chhatrapati Swami, an annual pension of Rs. 1,000 has been granted. Out of that, a village of an income of Rs. 500 has to be given. The remaining Rs. 500 are to be paid from Satara (1783-84), P. D., Vol. IV, p. 38. Shrimant Khatriyakulavatansa Maharaj Rajashri Chhatrapati Swami's relatives and servants are enjoying inam and saranjam. Pressure has been put on them for cesses owing to varat from the Sarkar. This letter is written to you exempting them from the cess now. Therefore do not press them for payment.

had procured for Madhava Rao II the high-sounding and lengthy title of *Vakil-i-Mutlug Amul-Umara Mutkhar-ul-Mumalik Madarul-maham Maslatlajat Umedwara Kinkhus Fat Far Wafadar Shirdsakar Sadatmand Bajyadebam Farjand Khas ul-Khas Makja Maharajadhiraj Rao Pandit Pradhan Bahadur*, Nana pointed out that the Peshwa could not, as a servant of the Raja of Satara, assume the title of Maharajadhiraj. But the problem was easily solved, as it was not very difficult for Sindhia to procure the gracious consent of their royal master. Again after the suicide of Madhava Rao II Nana had for a moment indulged himself in the idea of re-establishing the authority of the House of Shivaji, but the impracticability of the scheme was apparent. The claims of the Raja were recognised by the English government after the fall of the Peshwa, and while the last Peshwa was pensioned off, the descendant of Shivaji was re-installed as a ruling chief. We may now leave him in the temporary enjoyment of power and plenty and turn to the real head of the Maratha confederacy—the Peshwa.

2 *The Peshwa*

Here again theory and practice did not agree. Originally the Peshwa was only a member of

the Ashta Pradhan Council of Shivaji; he was one of the eight pradhans or ministers of state. The post was not even hereditary, as in Shivaji's time officers were frequently transferred from one post to another. Balaji Vishwanath Bhat was the seventh Peshwa; a glance at the list of his predecessors in that post will at once show that only in one case a father (Moro Trimbak Pingle) was succeeded by his son²² (Nilkanth Moreshwar). In theory, therefore, the other pradhans had every reason to regard the Peshwa as their equal. Nay, as Justice Ranade points out, he was even inferior in rank to at least one of them. "In the official order of precedence," says Ranade, "the Peshwa was a smaller functionary than the Pant Pratinidhi, whose office was created by Rajaram at Jinji, and Pralhad Niraji was made vicegerent of the Raja. The fixed salary of the Pratinidhi was 15,000 Hons, while for the Peshwa the salary was fixed at 13,000 Hons."²³ Balaji Vishwanath by his ability and statesmanship not only succeeded in making the Peshwaship hereditary in his family, but he and his more famous son Baji Rao I made the Peshwa's position superior to the other seven,

²² The first six Peshwas were (1) Shamraj Nilkanth Rozekar, (2) Moro Trimbak Pingle, (3) Nilkanth Moreshwar Pingle, (4) Parashram Trimbak Pratinidhi, (5) Bahiro Moreshwar Pingle, and (6) Balkrishna Vasudev.

²³ Ranade, *The Miscellaneous Writings*, p. 345.

and actually became what the Pratinidhi ought to have been, the vicegerent of the king. Baji Rao's position was further strengthened when his policy of expansion towards the north was accepted by Chhatrapati Shahu in preference to the opposite policy of southern conquest championed by the Pratinidhi. The Peshwa became the head of the Maratha Empire in name as well as in reality when Shahu appointed Balaji Baji Rao and Govinda Rao Chitnis, joint guardians of his successor, a minor. Tarabai helped to put the finishing touch to the Peshwa's work by imprisoning Ram Raja in the fort of Satara and thus preparing a perpetual prison for her own dynasty. This transfer of authority from the master to the servant was so gradually, silently, carefully accomplished, that the successive steps, important as they were in relation to the whole move, escaped all contemporary notice. Scott-Waring very pertinently remarks that "the usurpation of the Peshwas neither attracted observation, nor excited surprise. Indeed the transition was easy, natural, and progressive."²⁴

The Marathas had long been familiar with delegated authority. During Shivaji's absence in Northern India, the Government was carried on by a small council of regency of which Jijabai was the acknowledged head. It was notorious

²⁴ Scott-Waring, p. 169.

that Sambhaji did not care to look after the affairs of the state and although the royal authority was never formally delegated to anybody during his short reign, Kalusha, his favourite, did in fact rule the kingdom with his master's consent and tacit approval. After Sambhaji's death and Shahu's capture, Rajaram became the ostensible head of the Maratha people, but he also permitted two of his officers to conduct the government as they liked. Ramchandra Pant Hukamatpanha, placed as he was, far from Jinji, where his master then resided, had no other alternative but to carry on the civil and military affairs of the country without waiting for his master's opinion. But even at Jinji, Rajaram resigned his authority to the able hands of Pralhad Niraji. Thus the Bhat Peshwas had in their favour a series of important and well known precedents. At Kolhapur during the minority of Sambhaji II, Ramchandra Pant continued to be the real head of the state. And things were not much different at Satara during the closing years of Shahu. The King lost his reason more than once. The empire had expanded far and wide and the weak old man, never used to exertion and industry, found it necessary to leave the reins of the state entirely in the hands of the young, energetic, and ambitious Peshwa. The Marquis of Alorna, Viceroy and Governor-General of the Portuguese Estate in India, regarded him as a mere phantom, an

idol, worshipped but not always obeyed by his subjects

This does not signify that Shahu Chhatrapati was a mere puppet in the hands of his powerful ministers and unconsciously left his successor a victim to the ambitious intrigues of a Konkanastha Brahman. Shahu was not altogether a weakling. His ability like that of Charles II of England has been considerably underestimated by posterity. A state prisoner while still an infant, brought up as he was in the midst of the luxury and corruption of a Mughal court, we cannot expect from Shahu, the hardihood and untiring activity of his famous grandfather, or the careless bravery which characterised his licentious father even to the last moment. But he had inherited to a considerable extent the administrative qualities of the great Shivaji and he *ruled* as well as reigned. Here again we may profitably quote that great Maratha savant, Mahadev Govind Ranade. "In the forty years of rule enjoyed by Shahu, he was not merely a titular head of the Maratha Government, but he directed all operations, ordered and recalled Commanders, and he exercised a great controlling power on the chiefs, though he led no armies in the field. It was due to his efforts that Gujarath was divided between the Peshwa and the Dabhades or Gaikwads in equal halves after the battle of Dabhoi. When Balaji Baji Rao wanted to invade Bengal, Raghoji Bhosale protested

at Satara, and Shahu was strong enough to enforce moderation even over the towering ambition of Balaji, and forced him to leave the Eastern provinces of India free for the development of the Bhosale's power. Baji Rao was only a general under Shahu, and the Pratinidhis, Bhosales, Nimbalkars, Dabhades, Gaikwads, Kadambandes, Angres, Ghorpades all respected his orders.¹²⁵

Why Shahu made the Peshwa his heir's guardian it is not very difficult to guess. He had no issue of his own. Sambhaji of Kolhapur was the probable successor. Shahu had no reason to be favourably disposed towards his Kolhapur rival. Eventually a young prince of the Kolhapur branch was discovered, whose boyhood, to say the least, was obscure and who was rightly or wrongly regarded as an impostor by the enemies of the Peshwa. It is quite natural that Shahu did not feel the same zeal for transmitting the royal prerogatives undiminished to an unknown boy about whose identity sinister whispers were made, as he would have felt for keeping untarnished all the divine rights of royalty for an heir of his body. On the other hand he knew the ability of his ministers. He had known them long. The family had served him for three generations, and constant association must have produced a natural attachment, and Shahu had probably

²⁵ Ranade, *The Miscellaneous Writings*, pp. 348-49.

nominated Balaji Baji Rao a guardian of the young Raja as a reward for good service, knowing fully well that the reward was well-deserved and the power was vested in able hands. Govinda Rao's incompetence or indifference, Tarabai's ambition, and Ram Raja's weakness gradually led to the promotion of the Peshwa to the real headship of the empire. In any case it secured the continuity of the royal line. Shahu's successors were all weaklings, and but for this transfer of authority: a revolution was bound to follow sooner or later, resulting in the deposition of the family in name as well as in reality. It is to be noted that the dynasty of the Mikados was also preserved from the possible consequences of weakness and incompetence, by the rise of the Shogunate, an institution quite analogous to the Peshwaship.

3. *The Religious Head of the State :*

Here it should be noted that the Chhatrapati Maharaj was not only the political but also the ecclesiastical head (if we are allowed to use that term) of the state. This has to be remembered as we shall afterwards find the Peshwas frequently regulating social and religious affairs. Because the Peshwas happened to be Brahmans it may be wrongly supposed that they derived

this authority from their Brahman birth. This was not the case. The rise of Shivaji was preceded by a revival of Hinduism in the south ; and according to Hindu notions, the king is not only the chief magistrate of the state, but the principal regulator of social custom and the protector of religion as well. Cases regarding social custom and religion were generally referred to the Pandit Rao for direction by the Chhatrapatis, but it seems that the Brahman officers had for the sake of legal completion to procure the Non-Brahman Raja's sanction for the order passed in his name. A document dated March 16th, 1686, relates how when one Gangadhar Raghunath Kulkarni, a Brahman, who had been converted into Muhammadanism, and who had, though involuntarily and for a very short time to dine with the Muhammadans, applied for readmission into his caste after the performance of a prayashchitta, the Chhandogyamatya had to acquaint Sambhaji with the circumstances of the case and take the royal permission for the formal penance.²⁶ So the Peshwas exercised this authority as the authorised deputies of the Chhatrapati, and had inherited it with other royal prerogatives from Shahu. Within the territories under their direct rule the Peshwas were like the Chhatrapatis before them, the sole

²⁶ Rajwade, M.I.S., Vol. VIII, p. 36, D. 40.

depository of the sovereign authority of the state in all its modern significance

4 The Consequence of the Rise of the Peshwas

The rise of the Peshwa affected Maratha history in two ways. It destroyed the solidarity of the constitution which Shivaji's Ashta Pradhan Council was expected to maintain and it at once created two distinct classes of Sardars in the Maratha Empire. The Peshwas could, if they liked, suffer the Council to exist, and preside over its deliberations as the deputy of the Chhatrapati. But their ambition led them to establish an autocratic government removing at the same time the only bond of union, the only check to selfish individualism, and setting the ominous example of independence which henceforth became the only ambition of old Sardars like the Angrias, Bhonsles and the Gaikwads to imitate. The result was that the Maratha Empire ultimately became like the Holy Roman Empire, a loose confederacy of ambitious feudal chiefs, and the Peshwa, like the Emperor, gradually descended to the position of the head of a confederacy whose command was met with scant respect, and whose authority was confined within the territories under his direct personal rule.

5. *The Old and the New Aristocracy :*

Some distinction between the old and the new aristocracy in question of precedence was bound to arise after the promotion of the Peshwa. The old nobility regarded the Peshwa as their equal. They obeyed him only as the deputy of the king, while the new nobility, the Sindhia, the Holkar, the Rastias were the Peshwa's servants. They regarded the Peshwa as the master whose bread they ate and whom they were bound to serve. Their sentiment is voiced by Nana Fadnavis, when he says in his autobiography: 'we have long eaten his bread and he has favoured us as his children' and again 'this body is grown on his bread.'²⁷ These Sardars, therefore, were at first more amenable to discipline and obeyed the Peshwa without reluctance. The old Sardars, however, expected the Peshwa to remember that any respect that might be shown to him was a matter of courtesy and not of right, and that he in his turn should in courtesy return it. The Angria, for example, expected the Peshwa to come two miles from Poona to receive him on his visit to that city. It was also expected that the Peshwa should dismount on his approach and receive him on a *gasha* (an embroidered cloth) and then accompany

²⁷ Nana's Autobiography in Sane's *Patre Yadi Bagaire*, p. 38.

him to his (Peshwa's) residence, always keeping on the left side of the visitor and after he has taken the betel leaf at his place, send him to the residence appointed for his use and send a dinner also. And in the hall of public audience the Angria expected the Peshwa to rise to receive him and then sit on the same galicha²⁸. The Jadhava Rao also claimed similar privileges²⁹ and the Peshwa found it convenient to gratify their vanity by celebrating the occasion of the Jadhava Rao's visit to the Peshwa's palace by releasing prisoners³⁰. As a logical consequence of this idea the old Sardars claimed precedence over the new Sardars in the field of battle. If the Bhonsle of Nagpur and the Sindhia of Gwalior were both present in the battle field, the Bhonsle would demand the chief command as a matter of right.

6 *The Structure of the Government*

During the Peshwa period the feudal barons, both new and old, exercised sovereign authority within their fiefs, although the Peshwa had the prerogative of appointing their chief officers. The Dewans of the Gaikwad, the Holkar, and

²⁸ Kashiya Yadis ed. Mawli and Parasnis p. 24

²⁹ Kashiya Yadis p. 54

³⁰ Kashiya Yadis p. 56

Shrimant Nana Sahib Peshwa (i.e. Balaji Baji Rao) addressed Balaji Jadhava Rao as Kaka. The prisoners in the government prison were released in honour of his visit to the government house.

the Sindhia were always appointed by the Peshwa, but all of them claimed uncontrolled exercise of sovereign rights.³¹ Thus says the Jadhava Rao, "The management of Malegaon, where we live, has been always with us; the Sarkar has no authority over it."³²

The Supekar Pawars also claim the same right of managing their saranjam without any interference from the Peshwa.³³ Numerous other instances could be cited of similar claims. The villages over which these Sardars ruled, were self-contained units, and their democratic institutions remained unaffected and undisturbed till the lax supervision of the Peshwa's government was replaced by the more centralised and more efficient administration of the English. A detailed description of the village institutions, we should postpone for the present and try to understand the general structure of the Maratha government.

At the head of the government was the Peshwa who had power to act as the deputy of the Satara Raja. He was therefore the head of the feudal nobles and one of them at the same time. The feudal nobles rendered military service

³¹ Some of the new Sardars were descendants of the relatives or friends of Balaji Vishwanath. Thus Vishwanath Bhat Mehendale was Balaji Vishwanath's sister's son and Ambaji Tryambak Parandare his friend.

³² Kaifiyats Yadis, p. 54.

³³ Kaifiyats Yadis, p. 78.

in return for their fiefs or saranjams and were independent rulers in everything but name. The villages in Maharashtra proper, however, were managed by their own officers under the supervision of the Saranjami's agents. Thus the whole constitution was a curious combination of democracy and feudal autocracy. In fact no single term of political philosophy can be applied to it. Unable to call it a monarchy, aristocracy or democracy, Tone calls it a Military Republic. This is true only in one sense that the meanest soldier, if he had ability, could logically expect to be a Sardar of the empire. The empire itself, as Tone points out, was based, not upon confidence, but jealousy; and incapable of a comprehensive policy of national patriotism which had been the aim of Shivaji, fell to pieces when it came into conflict with a nation which combined individual self-sacrifice with national ambition.

CHAPTER II

VILLAGE COMMUNITIES

In the administration of his home provinces the Peshwa was a despot but not a tyrant. Like the benevolent despots of contemporary Europe, he was the head of a paternal government anxious to secure plenty, if not peace, for the governed. He was ready to do everything for them, and, unlike his fellow rulers in Europe, also allowed many things to be done by them. Yet in theory as well as in practice, his prerogatives were such as his European brethren might well have sighed for. Like them he was the head of the state, and unlike them he was the head of the 'church' as well (the word church cannot be strictly applied to the Indian institution, but for want of a better word it may be used here in a modified sense). With all these powers and prerogatives at their command the Peshwa might have aspired to a centralised despotism as Louis XIV had established in France; but their native good sense (with one unfortunate exception, that of Baji Rao II) always told them how far they would be tolerated by the independent spirit of the

Maratha peasant and it told them also where to stop. The Maratha peasant, unlike his brother of Bengal, was not the timid creature ready to submit to all sorts of tyranny and even to kiss the foot that kicked. Elphinstone was struck by the independence of spirit and easy manner with which they met the *English officers* after the annexation of the Peshwa's territories to the British dominions. Although there could be no doubt about their loyalty to the established government of the country, they would not easily part with the rights and privileges enjoyed by their ancestors. A Maratha would go to any extreme to save his watan, and the Peshwas had to take this fact into consideration in regulating their policy of home administration. With an exhausted treasury and always in debt, the Peshwas had to remember that their ultimate chance of reaching a financial equilibrium lay in the material prosperity of their country and the policy of developing the commercial resources of the Maratha dominions inaugurated by Shivaji from patriotic motives was continued by the Peshwas from consideration of expediency. Consequently the Maratha plunderer is absent in the Maratha administrator; or to be more accurate, he appears in another character, different in form but not in reality. His motives in plundering his enemy was the same that led him to protect his own land. The Maratha warrior

like all other warriors in all ages, wanted to weaken his enemy and strengthen his own resources. Consequently, whenever they annexed a new province they tried their utmost to improve its agriculture and industries and secure, so far as it was possible under the circumstances of the times, the material prosperity of the people. In this respect all the feudal states were similar with only some local variations that can be dismissed as of minor importance, and the Peshwa's government can be regarded as the type of them all.

1. Village Communities :

It has already been pointed out that allowance had to be made for the spirit of independence of the Maratha peasants and the Peshwa had to leave undisturbed what they thought were their ancestral rights. The village communities were allowed to administer their own affairs under the paternal and lax supervision of a set of government officers. The work of these officers again was supervised by the officers of *Huzur Daftar* supposed to be under the direct control of the Peshwa through his *Karbhari*. At the top of the system was therefore this *daftar* or secretariat, and at its base were the village communities. For convenience, we will discuss separately how the *daftar* and the village communities worked, and how the tiny states

at the base were connected with the daftar at the top by a chain of hereditary and non-hereditary government officials

"In whatever point of view," says Elphinstone, "we examine the native government in the Deccan, the first and the most important feature is the division into villages or townships. These communities contain, in miniatures, all the materials of a state within themselves and are almost sufficient to protect their members, if all other governments were withdrawn." But it is not their complete autonomy that makes the study of these village communities so interesting to the modern student. When mediæval India distracted by selfish wars and court intrigues, presents an unbroken array of gaudy pictures in red and black only, these small villages in Maharashtra not only furnish us with instances of republican institutions, but also give evidence of the existence of democratic principles to a greater or less extent. Even in those days of caste prejudice, the Brahman and Non-Brahman served on the village panch. The balutas or village artisans, so much looked down upon from the caste point of view, were consulted as a matter of right. It seems that their signature was also thought necessary for authenticity of a bond of loan or other legal documents. In a statement in connection with a dispute regarding a *Loharkı* (blacksmith's) watan (Shivaji wil

Tanhaji and others, *vs.* Satvaji (1763-64), occurs the following :

“From that time he does the work of the blacksmith and takes baluta (a share of grain from each villager in the harvest time due to the balutas—barber, washerman, carpenter, blacksmith, etc.), and puts his signature on the documents as the blacksmith, but he is not the owner of the blacksmith’s watan.”¹ When any dispute arose about the ownership of land or watan the case was either decided by the village panch or referred to them for decision, or the village artisans and village officers were summoned to give evidence before the Peshwas’ court. Orders of attachment of property in a village were sometimes addressed to the village community, and not to the officers alone. In 1750-51 during the administration of Balaji Baji Rao a sanad attaching a disputed watan was addressed to Jagthap, owner of half the Mokdam watan and the village community of Ambale.² In fact these small villages acted each as a unit, and were recognised by the Peshwas as such.

1

2. *The Patil :*

The chief man in the village was the Patil. He was the chief revenue officer, the chief Police Magistrate, and he united in him the function

¹ P.D., Vol. VII, p. 137.

² P.D., Vol. II, p. II.

of the chief judicial officer also. He acted as an intermediary between the villagers and the Peshwa's officer and served as a link between the village and the suzerain state. In the village he had the advantage of acting as the exponent of the Peshwa's authority, and before the Kamavisdar or the Mamlatdar he appeared as the authorised representative of his village. As the officer responsible for revenue collection, he was consulted by the Kamavisdar at the time of assessment, if the assessment was too high, he had the right to protest, and in case the Kamavisdar still remained obstinate, the Patil could bring him to reason by leaving the village and making any collection whatever impossible. That they actually had recourse to this step in extreme cases can be proved by a letter, dated 1773-74. It runs "A sanad to Gopal Rao Bhagwant Kamavisdar, Pargana Indapur. The *kharif* and *rabi* crops of the aforesaid Pargana failed owing to drought. The Patils wanted a new inspection of the fields to be made and the rate of rent revised accordingly, and they retired to Tenbhurni (to enforce their claim). You wrote that they should be brought back and an inspection of fields made, and collection made accordingly" (1773-74 Madhava Rao II)³. The prayer was granted in this case. Another document says that "The

Zamindars and Patils of Taluk Shivner, being dissatisfied, left their place and went to Kasba Ale. A Karkun was sent to them and they made known their grievances. You sent a written account of these grievances to the Huzur and they were as follows."⁴ It is needless to say that in this case also the Patils succeeded in making their grievances heard and in getting them redressed. On another occasion (1775-76) the Patils of Pargana Sinnar succeeded in compelling the Kamavisdar to accept the Zamindars as sureties for the cultivation of land and payment of revenue.⁵ But it was only in extreme cases that the Patil had recourse to this extreme measure. Generally they would represent their case to the Peshwa as did the Patil and Kulkarni of Mauja Rajapur, Pargana Wan.⁶

* P.D., Vol. VI, p. 227.

⁵ Antaji Krishna Kamavisdar of Pargana Sinnar was informed that owing to his refusal to accept the Zamindars as sureties for the cultivation of land and payment of revenue, the Patils of villages absented themselves from their villages and loss of revenue had resulted thereby. He was, therefore, directed to ask them to stand security. P.D., Vol. VI, p. 321.

⁶ The Jagir Amal of the village of Rajapur in Pargana Wan, belonged to Government and the Mokasa, Bakti and Sardeshmukhi Amal to the Pant Pratinidhi. The Kamavisdar over-assessed the village without taking into account the actual condition of cultivation, and in consequence of this as well as of scarcity, the villages became very poor. Therefore the Patil and the Kulkarni of the village came to the Huzur and represented that arrangement should be made from the Sarkar. Therefore, the work of cultivation of the aforesaid Mauja is entrusted to you. Therefore have the village cultivated and realise the rent with care. P.D., Vol. VI, p. 220.

As a judicial officer it was the Patil's duty to induce the parties in a suit to come to an amicable settlement, and if amicable settlement or arbitration failed, to appoint a Panchayet.⁷

As a police officer, he enquired into cases of theft and robbery and had under him the village watchmen.

The Patil was, however, not an elected officer, nor could he be appointed by the government. His was a hereditary office which could be sold and purchased ; and sometimes under pressure for money, unable to retain, yet reluctant to part with all the rights and perquisites of his office, the Patil disposed of some of them by sale and retained others. Thus there could be more than one Patil in a village. When the Patilship was enjoyed by several members of the family, the elder branch always enjoyed some additional privileges known as *wadilpan* or rights of seniority. Although not a very important point, yet it may be incidentally mentioned here that the Patil was seldom a Brahman ; Muhammadan Patils were by no means rare.

3. *The Patil's Rights and Perquisites :*

The village magistrate, though very useful to the Peshwa's administration, was not paid by him. It is by the villagers that he was paid, and the

⁷ B. I. S. M. Tṛtiya Sammelan Vṛitta, p. 51.

items of his remuneration would be quite interesting to a modern reader. In the year 1653 (Shaka) half the Patilki watan of Bhangaon in Pargana Karde of Sarkar Junnar in Subha Khujaste Buniyad was sold for Rs. 7,751 by Bangoji Kudanda to Gorkhoji Bhapkar. Bangoji sold his watan with wadilpan or seniority-rights and retained the rest of the rights and perquisites of the office for himself. In the deed of sale we find a detailed description of all the rights and perquisites of a Patilki watan. Bangoji also carefully recounts the occasions when Gorkhoji was to have precedence over the original owner. Detailed items of these Manpan and Hakks are given below :

* 1. All documents to be signed, first by Gorkhoji and then by Bangoji.

2. Present to Government should be made by Gorkhoji and not by Bangoji.

3. Shirpav and betel leaves from government should be received first by Gorkhoji and then by Bangoji.

4. In the Pola procession Gorkhoji's bullock should go first and Bangoji's behind ^{by Bet} through the village gate.

5. The Mang and Mahar should ^{eat} ~~be~~ the *toran* and give red paint first in Gorkhoji's house and then in Bangoji's.

6. On the occasion of the Dewali festivals the band should be played first at Gorkhoji

Patil's house and then in Bangoji Patil's. The Koli should pour water first at Gorkhoji Patil's house and then at Bangoji Patil's.

6. Gorkhoji's Ganesh and Gaur procession should come first and stop at Durga Mata, then Bangoji's Ganesh and Gaur procession should come there. In the joint procession Gorkhoji's gods should go first and Bangoji's behind them

7. The Holi cake to be brought and presented to the Holi first by Bangoji and then by Gorkhoji. At the Dasra time, the music should be first played at Bangoji's and then at Gorkhoji's house. The Mali of the village should bring flowers, and the Gurav should bring *vavri* to Bangoji's house first and then to Gorkhoji's.

8. At the Dasra time Bangoji should first worship the Apta plant and Gorkhoji next.

9. Bangoji's Shiralshet procession should come with music first and stop. Gorkhoji's procession should then come with music, and the two processions should then jointly proceed. In the joint procession Bangoji's should have precedence over Gorkhoji's

10. The leaves and *tilak* from the village should be given to Bangoji first and to Gorkhoji next.

The Brahman is to conduct the Tulsipuja on the Kartik Ekadashi day at Bangoji's house first and then at Gorkhoji's.

The Harijagran of the Kartik Amabasya Pratipad should first be performed by Bangoji Patil and then by Gorkhoji on the next day.

The Mahar should supply a bundle of fuel first at Bangoji Patil's house and then at Gorkhoji's.

When ploughing is done, permission should be taken by the Kulkarni from both the Mokdams.

Equal rights to be enjoyed by both :

1. The Patil's Shelpati dues of $1\frac{1}{2}$ maunds per boat-load of grain.

2. Twenty-five bundles of jawar stick from each cultivator.

3. Five seers of cotton from each field.

4. One bundle of jawar from each cultivator.

5. Two pairs of shoes per year from the shoemaker.

6. One bundle of green fodder from each cultivator.

7. Nine *taks* of oil for each oil-pressing machine from the oil-presser.

8. Thirteen leaves from each shop of betel leaves daily.

9. One lump of molasses, one bundle of sugarcanes and one tin of juice from each farm (growing sugarcane) excepting that belonging to the Joshi.

10. One goat from each herd on the Dasra day.

11 One piece of cloth per loom per year from all classes of weavers

12. From the loom of a Dhangar one piece of cloth per year

13 Half a cocoanut for every marriage negotiation, marriage and widow re-marriage

14 Vegetables from vegetable growers

15 One *wafa* of all produce except corn from each farm

16 Customary share from each seller in the market

17 Customary rent for each Bania's shop

18 One-fourth seer per bag of grocery from each grocer's shop

19 The customary amount of salt and chaff per bag

20 *Bahejama*, Rs 25 (a tax on new comers) per annum

21 One nut per day from each grocer's shop

The income from the above dues should be divided equally between Gorkhoji and Bangoji Patils

Half of the Mokdam-vada (Mokadam's house) should be enjoyed by Bangoji and the other half by Gorkhoji

If any Inam of *jirayat* land is secured from Hakim, Deshpande and Deshmukh it should be equally divided between the two

Any customary present and game from hunting should be divided between the two, Gorkhoji

should first take his share and then Bangoji should take his.

All dues and profits from any new suburb should be enjoyed by both.

The hide of their dead cattle should be given them by the Mahar.

Both the Mokdams should realise their dues from all the villagers except the Bhapkar and the Kudanda families.

Any old right or perquisite not mentioned in this list or any new right or dues that may hereafter be created, should be enjoyed by both Gorkhoji and Bangoji.

Then follows a detailed description of the partition of land enjoyed by the Patil by virtue of his office.*

The schedule of this deed of sale, however, does not exhaust all the profits of the Patil's watan as his rights and perquisites varied at different places. In the year 1777-78, during the administration of the second Madhava Rao, the traders of (tailors, dyers and weavers, etc.) Kasba Sangamner complained against Keroji Patil Gunjal for undue exaction. In the detailed order that was passed, were enumerated some of the old dues and some new transgressions made by the Patil of Sangamner. It prohibits several taxes and reduces others. The Shravan patti,

* P.D., Vol. I, Shahu Chhatrapati, pp. 146-151.

Shimganach patti and all new items of forced labour are forbidden altogether. The taxes on marriage and widow re-marriage and another tax called Karla are regulated. It is, therefore, certain that the Patil of Sangamner got Rs 14-0 as Pardam (tax on widow re-marriage) and a shela worth Rs 14-0 from every marriage party coming from another village, and one rupee for Karla⁹

A Sanad of the time of Balaji Baji Rao mentions one blanket every alternate year from the shepherds.

The above documents clearly show that the Patil's salary, if salary it was, was paid in kind and not in cash. Every villager gave him some shares of his produce, *e.g.*, the betel-leave sellers gave him 13 leaves per day, the Bania or grocer daily gave him a nut and he got vegetables, green fodders, cotton, oil, and sugar, in short all the necessities of life including a pair of shoes from his fellow-villagers in recognition of his public services. Out of the *juayat* and *bagayat* land he got a few acres. Above all, the Patil enjoyed some social distinction. In processions of Pola, Ganesh Gauri, and Shiralshet and at the time of the Holi and the Dasra, the Patil enjoyed precedence over all his fellow-villagers. Even Muhammadan Patils exercised the right of

offering Holi cake, although it was a purely Hindu festival.¹⁰ Sometimes a lady from the Patil family had to be invited to a marriage dinner in the village, not as a matter of courtesy, but as a matter of right. There was a civil suit about this right in A.D. 1774-75, between two branches of the Patil family of Mauja Girbi, Pargana Phaltan, and the right was awarded after careful enquiry to the representatives of the elder branch.¹¹

As the Patil enjoyed these social distinctions he had to make a corresponding return. It seems that custom required him to feed the *balutas* at the time of religious festivals. The government was in possession of the Patilki watan of Mauja Khodad, Tarf Narayangaon, Prant Junnar, about the year 1749-50, and we find a letter addressed to the Kamavisdar in charge, ordering him not to give more than two feasts in the year.

“A sanad to Govind Keshava, Kamavisdar in charge of Mauja Khodad, Tarf Narayangaon,

¹⁰ P.D., Vol. I, pp. 218-219. Here however the Muhammadan in question claimed *shetepan*.

¹¹ P. D., Vol. VI, pp. 317-319. The following passages in the *Saransh* or summary of the case will illustrate this statement :

In the meantime, last year without inviting to the marriage a lady from the elder Mokdam's family as she should have been, Bhikaji complained to late Shrimant Narayan Rao Pandit Pradhan. And again, “a lady (*Suvasin*, literally means a lady whose husband is alive) from your family should be invited.”

Prant Junnar There are twelve balutas It is usual to give them feasts on festive occasions You requested that an order should be passed about these feasts Upon that it is ordered that only two feasts should be given per year So give only two feasts per year, there is no necessity of giving more ¹² It may be noted here that considering the standard of living of those days, the Patil's office was a lucrative one, and he was perhaps better off than a Deputy Collector under the British administration

The Patil however, fully deserved his social distinction and high remuneration For, if his social position and remuneration were high, the responsibility and the risks of his office were very great too He was liable to be imprisoned for failure to pay the stipulated revenue of the village, and when an invader or a rebel levied *khandani* or contribution on the village it was the Patil who had to stand surety for his co-villagers, and had to remain as a hostage in the enemy's camp till his demand was satisfied The Patil of Nimbgaon Sava, Tarf Ale, was imprisoned by the Killedar of Nimbgori in the year 1742-43 for arrears of jagir dues The Killedar, when ordered to release the Patil calmly ignored the letter and

further increased his rigours by putting the man in irons.¹³

4. *The Kulkarni :*

Next to the Patil in rank came the Kulkarni; —invariably a Brahman, he was the Patil's clerk and the village record-keeper. He shared with the Patil the risk of imprisonment and oppression at the hand of the enemy and unprincipled government officials. Even in ordinary times the Patil and the Kulkarni had to suffer imprisonment for arrears of rent although all the villagers had joint responsibility for regular payment. Thus the Patil and the Kulkarni of Mauja Kingaon were imprisoned for an arrear of Rs. 1,925 and were not released until they had managed to collect Rs. 1,600.¹⁴

In time of political trouble the Patil and Kulkarni had to stand surety for the good conduct and loyalty of their co-villagers. Madhava Rao Narayan asked Narsing Rao Janardan Dhaigude to take from the Patils and Kulkarnis security for the loyalty of the Shiledars of their respective villages.¹⁵ "If there are more shiledars in your Taluka take the Patil

¹³ "The Killedar of fort Nimbgiri arrested the Patil of Nimbgaon Sava Tarf Ale, for arrears in Jagir dues. He does not release him. Ignoring the letter from Huzur ordering release he has put the Patil in irons." P. D., Vol. III, p. 219.

¹⁴ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 262-263.

¹⁵ Rajwade, M. I. S., Vol. X, p. 96.

and Kulkarni of the villages as security for their not going to serve the rebel Sardars " In addition to these responsibilities the Patil had another unpleasant duty He had to help distinguished personages when they passed through his village Sometimes the Patil himself had to carry their *luggage on his own shoulders like an ordinary cooly* in case he failed to find out Bigaris from his village Of course his responsibility came to an end automatically as soon as he reached the boundary of the next village

5 *His Rights and Perquisites*

The Kulkarni's Manpan and Hakk were, however, far inferior to those of the Patil We get a list of the rights and perquisites of the Kulkarni watan from a deed of sale executed by Mhalsabai, widow of Raghunath, the owner of half Kulkarni and Jyotishi watan of Mauja Nimbgaon Nagana, Tarf Khed, of Sarkar Junnar, in the year 1740 41

Having no son and no male relation of her husband's family, and burdened with a heavy debt and at the same time desirous of performing charity, she sold away half her Kulkarni and Jyotishi rights to Baji Yeshvant and Gangadhar Yeshvant Chandrachud, Deshpandes of Sarkar Junnar for Rs 2,000, reserving the other half for her son-in-law Lakshuman Govind Dhallu The

schedule of rights and perquisites not only enumerates those pertaining to the Kulkarni watan, but also indirectly gives some idea of those attached to the Patil's office. The schedule runs as follows :

1. Shirpav from the government to be received by the Kulkarni after the Patil.

2. Music to be played at the Kulkarni's house on the Dipwali and Dasra festivals after the Patil's.

3. Oilmen to give nine taks of oil per shop per day.

4. The customary share of vegetables to be taken from the vegetable-sellers after the Patil.

5. One pair of shoes per year from the shoemakers.

6. Water to be supplied by the Koli after he has supplied at the Patil's house.

7. One bundle of fuel on every festival.

8. Oil for ink and a piece of cloth for keeping papers to be received from the village.

9. Half the number of leaves received by the Patil to be taken from betel-leaves sellers.

Proceeds of the temple of Shrimartanda. (It seems from this item that both the Patil and the Kulkarni had some share in the proceeds of the village temples.)

1. Two and half *takas* at the time of the Purnima fair.

2 Bhandra presents after the Patil

3 Frankincense to be taken only on one Sunday in the month of Ashvin after the Patil had done so.

4. Sweetmeats on the day of Ashvin Purnima fair, half the quantity received by the Patil.

In addition to these Mhalsabai enjoyed as Mushahira Rs 24 in cash and three *Khandis* of grain (1 Khandi = 20 Maunds)¹⁶

6. *The Chaugula*

Below the Kulkarni and above the Mahar came the Chaugula, who assisted the Patil in his duties and also had the care of the Kulkarni's records. It is noteworthy that the Marathas still believe that the Chaugula was generally the Patil's illegitimate son or a descendant of the illegitimate son of one of his ancestors. Among the Non-Brahmans in the Maharashtra country the illegitimate children were not legally unfit to inherit their father's property. The celebrated Mahadaji Sindhia was an illegitimate son of his father Ranoji. Shahaji Patil of Mukave in Pargana Umbarkhed in Sarkar Mahur was succeeded in the patilship by his illegitimate son Santaji Thakur. It seems a formal

sanction of the Government was necessary in the case of succession by a natural son.¹⁷

7. *The Mahar :*

The Mahar, though a man of very low caste, was a very serviceable official. He helped the Patil in revenue collection by summoning the villagers to the Patil's office or *Chawdi* and held the office of the village watchman. He also had to look after village sanitation, and in return got the hide of the dead animals. Perhaps he derived his caste-name from this peculiar right as Sir Ramkrishna Gopal Bhandarkar supposes that the word Mahar is derived from Sanskrit *Mritahara*. But Mr. Atre suggests that it may be the combination of two Sanskrit words *ma* and *hara* (*ma* literally means Lakshmi and as the cow is sometimes called Lakshmi, it may stand for cow and hence cattle in general) and the Mahar is one who takes the dead cow.

¹⁷ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 106.

Dattaji Thakur and Santaji Thakur Patil of Kasba Mukave of Pargana Umbarkhed in Sarkar Mahur are informed that half the Patilki watan of the aforesaid Kasba belonged to Shahaji Patil. Krishnaji Anant Pandya of the aforesaid Kasba informed the Huzur that after the death of Shahaji his concubine's son Santaji Thakur had begun to enjoy the Patilki without the sanction of the Sarkar. Upon that the Mokdami of the above-mentioned person was confiscated. Presently we, taking pity on you, have ordered the restoration of the whole of your watan to you. Enjoy, therefore, the customary rights and perquisites of the Mokdamship of the abovementioned Kasba and do the work of that office.

We need not tarry here to discuss the etymology of the word *Mahar* and may pass on to the rights and perquisites of his watan. Here, however, no deed of sale comes to our aid, and we have to depend upon a document of an entirely different character, the summary of a civil suit. Bennak, son of Subhannak of Kasba Nagar, and Devnak, son of Bhiknak Shinda of Mauja Isalak, Pargana Parner, complained in the year 1776-77 that the Kunbis and Mangs were illegally depriving them of some of the customary rights of their watan and recounted those transgressions as follows

1 They were obstructed by the Kunbis in their customary right of taking hides of all dead cattle excepting plough bullocks

2 That on the Dasra day the Mangs got their customary bowlful of Naibedyas, etc., from every house—out of that 5 Naibedyas and 5 pice belonged to them (Mahars) but the Mangs quarrel about that

3 That the Naibedyas of the Pola bullocks belonged to them (Mahars) but the Mangs unlawfully claimed them

4 That they (Mahars) had a right to the cattle that died in the house of the Mangs and Mangs should not obstruct them in exercising this right

5 The buffalo to be sacrificed on the Dasra day is taken round the village, and a pot of

sweetmeats is hung round its neck. The pot and the buffalo belong to the Mahar. This being the custom the Mangs demand half the sweet-meats.

6. That the Naibedya to the deity of cholera belonged to them the Mahars but the Mangs quarrelled about this right and claimed it as theirs.

7. That the custom was that the bridegroom of the Mahars should ride on horseback while the bridegroom of the Mangs should ride on bullocks, but the Mangs contrary to the custom take their bridegroom on horseback; they should be prohibited.¹⁸

Perhaps the Mahar had some other rights too. It is certain he got the customary baluta, or a share of grain at the harvest time, along with the other Balutas, as did his rival the Mang.

8. *The Potdar :*

The fifth village officer was the Potdar, always a Sonar or goldsmith by caste. His duty was to test the genuineness of the coins, or rather to see whether the coins really had the prescribed weight and proportion of metal. But it seems that sometimes one Potdar held the office for more than one village. A document dated 1740-41 shows that three brothers were holding the potdarship of Tarf Rajapur (4 or 5 villages make a Tarf). "Balaji Rudra, Keso

¹⁸ P. D., Vol. VI, pp. 324-328.

Rudra, and Moro Rudra Shenvai, Potdars of Rajapur came to the Swami at the Mukkam of Shahunagar near the fort of Satara and submitted that they were enjoying the Potdar's watan of Tarf Rajapur."¹⁹ A second document dated 1742-43 shows that one Ganshet Sonar held the Potdar's office for two Parganas and his remuneration was a Damdi per Rupee of the collected revenue ($\frac{1}{4}$ pice = 1 Damdi)."²⁰ (A Sanad granting the Potdari watan of the Parganas Sakse and Karnale was given to Ganshet Sonar last year. The aforesaid Sonar informed (us) that you said that Potdar's Damdi (customary remuneration) is in your ijara and people therefore did not give him the usual Damdi per Rupee). While another document dated 1765-66 tells us that Lakshman Sonar, Potdar of Pargana Nevase, got an allowance of Rs. 4 per month from the government and an extra allowance at the rate of Rs. 2 per large village and Re. 1 per small village.²¹ This grant of a government allowance perhaps point out that it was recognised that the Potdars' services were more necessary to the central government than to the villagers. The

¹⁹ P.D., Vol. I, pp. 139-141

²⁰ P.D., Vol. III, p. 362.

²¹ Lakshman Sonar, Potdar of Pargana Newase informed the Huzur that the Potdari watan of the aforesaid Pargana belonged to his family from old times. He was getting from the Sarkar Rs. 4 per month, and in addition to that Rs. 2 from big villages and Re. 1 from small villages, P.D., Vol. VII, p. 107.

Potdar closes our list of village officers and we shall now turn to the industrial organisation of the village.

9. The Industrial Organisation :

The Maratha village was a self-contained unit. Surrounded by a wall, it tried to be independent of the outside world as much as possible. We have already seen how it had its own Patil, Kulkarni, Chaugula, Mahar and Potdar; and we shall see later on how the civil suits could be decided by the village Panchayet without any intervention from the Peshwa's Government. As it had its political autonomy, the Maratha village tried to have its industrial autonomy also; and this brought into existence the twelve balutas or the village artisans. The logical consequence of the idea and the ideal of industrial autonomy was that the artisans became watan-holders, and expected that they and their descendants should enjoy a monopoly of their particular trade in the village and their right to such a monopoly in theory as well as in practice was recognised by all. Civil suits about ownership of such watans were frequent and often complicated, for neither did a Maratha watan-holder easily lose his hereditary office, nor was he willing to do so. Long absence from the village did not prejudice his rights in any way; he or his descendants could return after thirty or forty years and replace the man who had in the

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¹⁹ P D, Vol I, pp 139 141

²⁰ P D, Vol III, p 362

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meantime been serving the villagers. Wonderful perfection of their knowledge of genealogy and village history and tradition was on such occasions exhibited. In the year 1779 80, Raghoji and Satbaji son of Abaji Khadke, applied for a sanad of the barber's watan in Kasba Poona, in the history of the watan, described in the application, we find that their ancestor had left the watan in time of scarcity and during his absence the barber's service was rendered by another family. On the return of the descendants of the original watan-holders, the watan was divided between the two families. In the year 1749 50 however, the barbers' watan at Chinchodi, Tarf Siral, in Pargana Nevase was recovered by Jakhoji and Yamaji sons of Santa barber after a long absence of the family from the watan for two generations (their grandfather had left the village owing to scarcity)²² Similarly the blacksmith's watan of Mauja Khodad, Tarf Narayangaon, Prant Junnar, was recovered by four cousins Shivaji son of Tanhaji, Visaji son of Malji, Darkoji son of Malharji, and Nimbaji son of Shivaji Chaudhari in 1763 64, although their uncle Santu had voluntarily left the watan and his native village and refused to return to his duties, even when his co-villagers repeatedly requested him to do so²³. In 1764-65 the Sonarki

²² P. D., Vol II p. 9

²³ P. D. Vol VII pp 137 139

(goldsmith) watan of Lonikhurd Tarf Haveli Sangamner was recovered by the heirs of the original watandars after a long absence.²⁴ Similarly the heirs of the village officers like Patil, Kulkarni, Chaugula, etc., could recover their ancestral watan, for the modern rules of limitation were either unknown or always ignored.

The balutas, as we have seen before, were twelve in number (they were: Mahar, Sutar, Lohar, Chambhar, Parit, Kumbhar, Nhavi, Mang, Kulkarni, Joshi, Gurav, and Potdar), and received their remuneration called baluta in kind, a fixed amount of grain at the harvest time. Corresponding to the twelve balutas there were twelve *alutas*. But of all these balutas and alutas only the Joshi demands a special mention here. The word Joshi, derived from Sanskrit *Jyotishi*, means an astrologer. And the large number of inams that the astrologers got from Shivaji and his successors, in reward of their successful prophecies show what a hold they had over the popular mind. Nothing important was ever undertaken without consulting the astrologer. So every village required a Joshi of its own. His remuneration, as recorded in the deed of sale executed by Mhalsabai (already quoted in connection with the Kulkarni watan) was (1) baluta equal to Gurava's (temple priests), (2) presents at the

²⁴ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 151-163.

temple (Prasad) equal to first class baluta, and (3) 25 bighas of gram land yielding $12\frac{1}{2}$ maunds per bigha. It is noteworthy that on the failure of legal issue, a Joshi would not be succeeded by his natural children in the ancestral watan. This principle is well illustrated by a civil suit, that of Mallarbhat and others vs Subhana Dasiputra (maid servant's son).

The facts of the case were as follows

Khand Bhat and Narayan Bhat were holders of the Joshi watan of three villages Mauja Bemble, Mauja Ghoti and Mauja Parhete. The first plaintiff Mallar Bhat was their grand nephew and the second and third plaintiffs Nimb Bhat and Balambhat were the sons of their cousin Hanvant Bhat. Hanvant Bhat, grandfather of the first plaintiff, and father of the second and third plaintiffs, was Joshi of Akole. On the death of Narayan Bhat without any issue, his share of the three villages passed on to his brother Khand Bhat. Khand Bhat again died without any legitimate issue and his funeral ceremonies were performed by the plaintiffs who were also supporting the widow of the deceased watandar. But the deceased had an illegitimate son by a maid-servant called by his father's relations as Subhana Dasiputra. The plaintiffs complained that this bastard had put himself in illegal possession of half the Joshi watan of Ghoti. When summoned before the Government Karkuns and Deshmukh

and Deshpande of Pargana Poona the bastard had to admit that he had no right of inheritance to his father's property, and had to submit a written statement to that effect.

The statement of Subhana Dasiputra :

In the Shake 1676, Subhana Dasiputra wrote this statement—the aforesaid Mauja and half of Mauja Ghoti in Pargana Bhoose ($1\frac{1}{2}$ village in all) are your watan; and Mauja Parhete and half of Ghoti in Prant Bhoose ($1\frac{1}{2}$ village in all) are Narayan Bhat's watan. Narayan died without issue and Khand Bhat enjoyed all the three villages. After Khand Bhat's death I, your maid-servant's son, did the work of the watan; but as you did not like it, I handed over to you the village of Bemble and kept the Jyotishpan of half the village of Ghoti formerly belonging to Narayan Bhat. When the Pant Pradhan Saheb was made acquainted with the circumstances, he had me brought to his presence. When questioned about the circumstances of the case, I said that I was not the heir to the watan and that you were the owners and proprietors, so that you might enjoy your watan in peace, I wrote this paper.²⁵

10. The Mirasdars and Upris :

The village land was divided among Mirasdars and Upris. The Mirasdars were residents

of the village who had permanent proprietary right in their land, and could not be ejected or dispossessed so long as they paid their rent. This rent again, as we shall see when we discuss the revenue system, was a fairly fixed amount. But as the village community was regarded as an organic whole, the Government held Miras-dars as a body responsible for the payment of revenue, in ordinary cases, they were obliged to make up for failures in the payment of each of their body. The property of Mirasdars was hereditary and saleable, and even when ejected for non payment of land tax, the Mirasdars did not lose the right of recovering their ancestral farm land for a long period. If they could repay the government dues they were entitled to restitution even after so long a period as thirty or forty years. The Upris on the other hand, were tenants at-will, and generally strangers holding government land under the management of Mamlatdars. They had therefore none of the advantages of the Mirasi, but the latter did not enjoy his privileges gratis. He had to pay heavier taxes, and the major portion of the burden of village expenses fell on his shoulders. It is believed that originally there were no Upris, and the Mirasdars were the descendants of the original settlers who became the natural proprietors of the village lands, according to Manu's code which lays down that land belongs to the

clearers of the wood; and there is reason to believe that this assertion is not without a strong foundation. Even to-day the Mirasis form the majority of the cultivators while the Upris are in the minority. So the Maratha villages, like other Indian villages, were originally inhabited by independent proprietors. This, with their isolated situation in a mountainous tract, perhaps helped them to remain the independent autonomous republics that they originally were throughout the Maratha period, and even during the first few years after English conquest.

Generally, the white soil of the village was reserved for the *gharthan* or the homesteads of the villagers and the black soil for cultivation. This distinction afterwards gave birth to a peculiar meaning of the word *pandhari* white, which when used in relation to villages stood for villagers in general. The village was surrounded by a wall, and all the villagers except the criminal classes, like the Bhils and the Ramoshis lived within it. The criminal classes for the sake of public safety as well as public sanitation had to live outside the village wall, although they had to perform the Police duties. They were under their Naik, or the headman of their caste, and were held responsible for every theft or robbery committed in the village. Unless they succeeded in tracing the offence to some other village or in recovering the property lost, the

criminal tribes as a body had to make good the property stolen. As a consequence, every village was secure from the thieving exploits of its own Ramoshis, and generally, the Ramoshis from distant villages or the Bhils from mountains were responsible for the breach of rural peace. But in time of general disturbance and often in times of general peace the feudal chiefs plundered their rivals' villages. Against these more powerful robbers the village wall offered but scant resistance and no security.

11. The Financial Arrangement :

We may now turn to the financial arrangement of our rural republics. Above all they had to pay the government dues as a matter 'of course ; and their land-tax was fixed conjointly by the Patil and a government officer after actual survey and inspection for a fairly long term. But as the village had its own special needs, it had to raise money to meet them. Says Elphinstone—"The maintenance of the Village Temple ; (in the deed of sale executed by Mhalsabai we have seen that in her village there was a temple of Shri Matandji—the sun-god) its fixed and authorized pensions, and annual charities ; its ceremonies and religious festivals ; its alms to beggars and entertainment to guests, etc., and the fees of peons stationed in the village, entail a number of expenses on the community, which,

unless allowed for from the Government revenue (which is very rare) are defrayed by a tax on the village." This extra tax fell on the cultivators, and the major portion of the burden was (as has formerly been mentioned) borne by the Mirasdars. The charges for the temple, charity and festivals were permanent and more or less constant, and were therefore raised by a permanently fixed tax called *Salabad* while the less constant and uncertain but none the less recurring charges were met by an extra assessment called *Sadar Warid patti*. In addition to these recurring expenses there were non-recurring ones, the most important of them in those insecure times being that incurred by the repair of the village wall (for which government sometimes sanctioned a grant) and the purchase of forbearance of an insurgent or an enemy, against whose arms the villagers were helpless. The government was sometimes ready to make some remission of revenue for the second item, but a total remission, or concession even to the amount of contribution paid by the villagers, was absolutely unknown. In such cases if the amount was very heavy a public debt was contracted, and gradually paid off by an annual assessment included in the *Sadar Warid patti* or mortgages or grants of land on the part of the villagers. These grants, known as *Gaon Nisbat Inam*, were enjoyed rent-free by the creditors. If small in area no rent

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was charged for these inams, but if big, rent was paid by the villagers in common²¹ So the Peshwa's government allowed the Maratha villages a free hand in financial matters. In fact, the village communities enjoyed real self-government within the empire. If the village officers were not elected by the villagers, neither were they appointed by the government, and although they had to obey the orders of the government, the very nature of their communities put them under the moral influence of public opinion, as they were paid directly by the villagers. Industrially the Maratha villages were self-contained and self-sufficient. The paternal supervision exercised by the Peshwa's officers on the whole secured the material welfare of the rural communities and was not therefore unnecessary. We shall next try to see how this paternal supervision was exercised by the government of a benevolent despot.

²¹ Elphinstone Report on the Territories recently conquered from the Peshwa (2nd Edition) pp 19-20

CHAPTER III

DISTRICT AND PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

1. *The Deshmukh and the Deshpande :*

Before the time of Shivaji the Deshmukhs and the Deshpandes, were in charge of the Parganas. They were also called Zamindars. Their control over the villages led to oppression of the rayat, and Shivaji decided to do away with their agency. At the same time, the great Maratha ruler did not forget that if the Zamindars were turned out of their office without any provision whatever, an economic revolution would follow creating a number of beggars who had once seen opulence ; and the remedy would be worse than the disease. He, therefore, took away their authority, but left them in the enjoyment of their customary dues, and appointed government officers in their place. The Peshwas simply continued this practice of Shivaji, and the change was not produced "by the policy and avarice of the Bramins" as Elphinstone seems to suggest, but it was really "attended with beneficial effects," as he himself further adds—"as delivering the people from the oppression and exactions

of the Zemindars.”¹ In fact during the Peshwa period the Deshmukh and the Deshpande became the sincere friends of the rayat, and never failed to bring to the notice of the Peshwa their grievances. We find the Zamindars accompanying the Khots and Patils of Prant Rajpuri to Poona to inform their master how insecure the rayats felt and how the lands were left uncultivated owing to the disturbance of the Shamal (siddi) (1760-61).

“The rayats of Prant Rajpuri have been much oppressed by the disturbance of the Shamal, and their lands have not been cultivated. Disturbance takes place every day. The Zamindars, the Khots, and the Patils came to Poona and prayed that the Swami should therefore take pity on them and make collection according to a new inspection of the aforesaid Prant in the present year.”²

Again in 1763-64, the Deshmukh and the Deshpande represented to the authorities that the villages of Prant Junnar had been burnt and plundered by the Mughals, and suggested that some concessions to the cultivators should be made.³

But although the Deshpandes and the Deshmukhs were relieved of their original duties,

¹ Elphinstone, Report, p. 21.

² P. D., Vol. III, p. 220.

³ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 10.

their watan was not altogether a sinecure. "Long after the Zamindars ceased to be the principal Agents," says Elphinstone, "they were still made use of as a check on the Mamlutdar; and no accounts were passed, unless corroborated by corresponding accounts from them." In fact the hereditary officers were preserved as a check on their non-hereditary superiors in almost every department of the Peshwa's government. In addition to this, the Deshmukh served as a depository of old records and the past and the present history of all watans, grants, and inams. So, whenever there was any dispute about land, the Deshmukh was asked to produce his old records and he had also "to keep a register of all new grants of transfer of property either by the Government or by individuals." It seems that the Deshmukh had an official seal for stamping these deeds, and it was usual for the senior owner of the watan to be the custodian of this seal, while the junior owners simply enjoyed the inam lands. Two documents are quoted here in support of this statement.

"Trimbak Rao, son of Gamaji Mhaske, Deshmukh Pargana Sangamner, came to the Huzur at the Mukkam at fort Purandhar and informed that half the Deshmukhi of the aforesaid Pargana belonged to his family and the other half to the family of Shelke. That in his family he was the senior and that the accepted custom was that the

senior man in the family should have the entire right of using the official seal, putting his signature and doing the other duties of half the share of the aforesaid Pargana, while his co-sharers should enjoy their customary share of the *nam*, and that the senior should grant them such pecuniary assistance as he deemed fit for their needs. That he had been exercising his right of seniority in the above style * * * Coming to the above conclusion we give you this letter of authority. Continue in the enjoyment of your right of seniority, generation after generation, use the seal of the family of Mhaske as before, do the *Deshmukhi* work of 150 villages and exercise your right of seniority by putting your signature, giving your co-sharers their due share of the *nam*, and granting them pecuniary help as is customary and as their needs demand" (1776-77) *

"Dadaji Dev Rao *Deshmukh*, *Tarf Haveli*, *Tarf Ale*, *Tarf Votur* and *Tarf Minher*, *Prant Junnar*, came to the *Huzur* and represented that of the above-mentioned four *Tarfs* half the *Deshmukhi* belonged to *Tulaji Sakhoji Hande Deshmukh* and the other half to him. That the old custom prevailing in the *Mughal* regime required the senior member of the family to reside at court, and accordingly on the death of his father *Dev Rao*, he, as the senior owner of their half, remained with the *Mughals* at *Killa Shivner* and asked

his uncle Ananda Rao, the younger brother of Dev Rao, to carry on the work of the Deshmukh. Ananda Rao conducted the work for twenty years and upon his death his son Shivaji continued it for ten years more. But he did not submit any account to Dadaji nor did he give the latter the produce of the watan. Dadaji therefore urged that, as the senior owner, he should have the management of the watan to which Ananda Rao had no legal claim, and Shivaji Ananda Rao should be warned that he should have the rights of a simple junior sharer only. Upon that Shivaji Ananda Rao was brought to the Huzur and on enquiry it was found that he had no claim to the management. All past account should be submitted and explained to you (Dadaji), you should manage the above-mentioned half Deshmukhi. You are accordingly ordered to do the customary work of the management of half the Deshmukhi, put your signature and use the seal and enjoy the rights and perquisites of the watan (*Hakdak, Manpan, Inamat, Isafat*).''⁵

2. *The Deshmukh's Rights and Perquisites :*

The Deshmukh's office, like that of the Patil, was very lucrative. The following remarks of Elphinstone are interesting : "The Daishmook's

profits are very great, generally, I am told, about five per cent not only on the Revenue, but on the land, five acres in each hundred for example, will belong to the Daishmook, and a twentieth of the collections besides and various claims in kind, as a pair of shoes, every year from each shoe-maker, a portion of ghee from those who make that preparation, etc, etc" "It seems to be thought, that they (Deshmukh and Desphande) cannot sell their Offices (though Patails and Coolcurnees can) and it is even doubtful, if they can sell their fees, though they may pawn them Their land they can certainly sell' Whether they could sell their fees or not we do not know but that at least on one occasion the Deshmukh's fees were transferred by a *bakshishnama* is certain The deed in question has been published by Mr V K Rajwade According to this document, the Deshmukh got only two per cent of the revenue and not five per cent as Elphinstone says As it recounts all the rights and perquisites of Deshmukh and Deshpande watans, a part of it at least is worth quoting -

1 The custom is to pay Rs. 3 from each village, out of that the Desphande will take Re 1 and you should take the remaining Rs 2

¹ Elphinstone, Report, 2nd edition, pp 21-22

² Rajwade Sources of Maratha History, Vol X p 114

2. The Shirpav from government should be taken by you first and by the Deshpande afterwards.

3. On the documents relating to watan, etc., you should put your signature, and by the side of your signature the Deshpande will put his.

4. Presents should be placed before the government officer by you first, and the Deshpande should make his presents after you.

5. Betel leaves from government as well as from others should first be taken by you and by the Deshpande afterwards.

6. As for other Manpan, etc., pertaining to the watan you should accept them first and the Deshpande afterwards.

7. In the aforesaid Kasba, there is a plot for the Deshmukhi watan. You should erect a building there and live therein.

8. Take the customary dues of green vegetables from markets in the different villages and in the aforesaid Kasba, etc.

9. You should enjoy old inam land both *jirayat* and *bagayat*.

10. Take the customary bundle of fuel from the Mahars from each village at the time of the festivals.

11. Take from each village *til* at the time of Sankranti and *ghi* at each Shradh ceremony performed.

12 Two *bhets* (presents) should be taken by you and your representative employed for the work of the aforesaid Pargana

13 Take one blanket annually from every village where Dhangars work their looms

14 Take shoes from the shoemakers at the rate of a pair per year per village

15 Take the customary *sayvan* dues from the said Kasba

16 The sweepers of the mosque of Shaha Daval Pidar pays Rs 3 per year as *tabruk*, out of that Re 1 belongs to the Deshpande, you should take the remaining two

17 The bread money from each village should be divided equally between you and the Deshpande

18 The musician should be rewarded by you first and then by the Deshpande

19 Of the miscellaneous dues for miscellaneous work, you should give one-third share to the Deshpande and keep for yourself the remaining two-thirds

20 Of the dues to the government in connection with the Pargana the Deshpande should pay one third and you two thirds

It is therefore clear that the remuneration of the Deshmukh and the Deshpande was in every way analogous to that of the Patil and the Kulkarni, and was paid by the people of their Pargana and not by the government Their

interest was therefore, closely bound up with that of the 'people, and for the sake of public interest, it seems that women were sometimes considered unfit to hold these offices, although the affairs of great military fiefs were often under the charge of ladies. Umabai Dabhadé was often addressed by the Peshawa on matters of great political weight and we all know how skilfully the famous Ahalya Bai managed the helm of the state bark during the political storm of those times. Public opinion as voiced by the Panch of Sarkar Junnar had decided in 1772-73 that "No Deshpande watan should in future be continued in the name of a female." ⁸

⁸ The circumstances of the case are as follows :

In the year 1768-69, Girmabai, widow of Krishnaji Hari Deshpande, represented that there had been no lineal descendant in her family for 4 or 5 generations, and that it was therefore usual in the family for the widow to adopt a son and have the watan continued in her adopted son's name : that her adopted son had agreed to enter her name along with his, but after sometime he had omitted to do so. Her adopted son Bhagvant Rao died leaving a boy of five or seven years, and his officers refused to recognise the authority of the lady. The lady, therefore, urged that her joint authority with the boy should be recognised, and the prayer was granted. The unreasonable interference of the lady, however, led to mismanagement, and three years later we find Amrit Rao petitioning the government that some measures for good management should be taken. He also pointed out that if the claim of Girmabai was recognised by the government as a principle, the same claim would be made after her death by Amrit Rao's step-mother. The government appointed a Panchayet for decision, and they gave their verdict entirely in favour of Amrit Rao. They decided that not even a moiety of power should be surrendered to Girmabai, her name however should be continued in documents so long as she lived, but in future no watan should be continued in the name of a female. P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 112-113.

3. *The Kamavisdar and the Mamlatdar :*

During the regime of the Adilshahi and the Nizamshahi dynasties the Maharashtra country was, for revenue and administrative purposes, divided into Parganas, Sarkars and Subhas. Shivaji, however, true to his nationalising principles, divided his dominions into Mauja, Tarf and Subha. In his days the officer in charge of a Tarf was called a Havaladar, and the officer in charge of a Subha was styled as a Subhedar or Mukhya Deshадhikari. During the Peshwa period, however, we find all these terms Tarf, Pargana, Sarkar and Subha, in indiscriminate use. But the Subha was also called a Prant and Tarf and Parganas also came to be styled as Mahals. Over the small divisions were placed the Kamavisdars, and the Mamlatdars held the charge of the bigger divisions. The Mamlatdars held their office directly under the central government except in the three provinces of Khandesh, Gujrat and the Karnatak, where they were placed under officers known as Sarsubhedars "In the Carnatic he (Sarsubhedar) was answerable for the Revenue, and appointed his own Mamlutdars; but in Candeish he had only a general superintendence; every Mamlutdar giving in his own accounts, and making his payments direct to Government." We may, however, enter into an enquiry about the remuneration of these

high officials before discussing their powers and privileges, rights and responsibilities.

4. *Their Pay:*

A comparison of the documents will show that all the Kamavisdars did not enjoy the same remuneration, their allowance varied with the importance of the districts under their charge. Thus Trimbak Hari was appointed Kamavisdar of Sarkar Hande in the year 1740-41 on a salary of Rs. 1,000 per annum⁹ while Ramchandra Ballal, Kamavisdar of Pargana Bhupal, enjoyed in the year 1743-44 a salary seven times as large.¹⁰ The general principle seems to have been to give the Kamavisdar 4 per cent. of the money advanced by him (thus in the case of the Kamavisdar of Pargana Bhupal—your salary is Rs. 7,000 at the rate of 4 per cent. on the revenue of one lac and seventy-five thousand).¹¹ But this

⁹ P. D., Vol. III, p. 254.

¹⁰ P. D., Vol. III, p. 255.

¹¹ P. D., Vol. III, p. 255. I beg to differ from Rao Bahadur D. B. Parasnis who seems to think that in the above two cases the officers got as their salary 4 per cent. of the revenue of their districts. In his English summary of documents Nos. 407 and 409, Vol. I, 'Balaji Baji Rao Peshway,' he says—"the remuneration of the Kamavisdar of Bhopal was fixed at Rs. 4 per cent. of the revenue received." And again "The Mamlat of Bundelkhand was entrusted to one person, and Rs. 3,20,000 were received from him in advance on account of land revenue. His remuneration was fixed at Rs. 12,800 at Rs. 4 p. c. of the revenue." It is doubtful whether the word *rasad* in these two documents means—revenue, it stands rather for the money that these officers had to advance at the time of their appointment, and a simple

rule does not appear to have been uniformly followed. In the case of the Kamavisdar of Kasba Puntamba¹² quoted in the footnote it was clearly stipulated in his appointment letter that he should pay at least Rs 20,000 in advance every year. His salary according to the former rule should have been Rs 800 but as it was, the officer did not get more than Rs 200 ('of the sum contracted Rs 20,000 are to be paid in advance every year. Pay therefore Rs 20,000 annually and get receipt')

"The salary of the Shibandi and the officers of the aforesaid Mahal as before—Rs 200 Kamavisdar)

Generally a lump sum was granted for the Kamavisdar's office and officers minutely

calculation shows that the salary amounted to just 4 p c of what they had paid in advance. Ramchandra Ballal Kamavisdar of Bhupal had paid Rs 170,000 and his salary was Rs 7,000. Lakshman Shikhar Maulatdar of Bundelkhand paid Rs 3,20,000 and got Rs 12,800 for his salary. Trimbak Babu Rao was appointed Kamavisdar of Kasba Puntamba (in the year 1709-60) for 5 years. The revenue of the village was on rise at the following rate

1759-60	Rs 45,000
1760-61	Rs 46,000
1761-62	Rs 47,000
1762-63	Rs 48,000
1763-64	Rs 49,000

So his salary at the rate of 4 p c of the revenue would have been at least Rs 1,800 but actually it was Rs 200 only (see p 269, Balaji Baji Rao, Vol I). Nor can the Rao Bahadur urge that the *rasad* demanded always amounted to one year's revenue. We have a series of documents in the same volume contradicting such a supposition.

¹² P. D., Vol III, p 277

specifying the salary of each and every Karkun, even the ordinary foot-men not being omitted.

One document will sufficiently illustrate the whole arrangement and we shall quote here that addressed to Trimbak Hari, Kamavisdar, Sarkar Hande.

“The following sum, on account of the establishment to be kept by Trimbak Hari, Kamavisdar of Sarkar Hande, was sanctioned—

Rs. 1,000 ... The Kamavisdar. •

Rs. 660 ... Palanquin for 11 months at
Rs. 60 per month, service to
be taken for 12 months.

Rs. 7,500 ... Troopers 50.

Two hundred peons to be entertained at Rs. 2-8, Rs. 2-12, or Rs. 3 per month; the salary to be paid for 12 months.

Twelve Karkuns to be employed when necessary at the *chaukis* (out-posts) at Rs. 3-8 per mensem.

Karkuns at the following monthly salaries payable for 10 months, service being taken for 12 months :

Rs. 25—Mazumdar.

Rs. 25—Naroram Fadnis.

Rs. 25—Shivaji Dadaji Chitnis.

Rs. 25—Shirmaji Avji (a Karkun).

Rs. 20—Janardan Bhashkar (a Karkun).

Rs 60—Four Karkuns, Visaji Yadava, Bhikaji Tande, Moro Shamraj, and Girmaji, on Rs 15 each

Rs 48—Four Karkuns on Rs 12 each, *viz*, Babuji Trimal, Govind Shivdev, Shivaji Ram and Venkaji Anant '

It shows how much attention was paid even to minute details. Two points in this document demand our special notice. We find here the peculiar custom of paying for ten or eleven months, while a full year's service was demanded from the officer in question. The practice was, however, not peculiar to the civil departments only, but was followed with equal persistency in the army, navy and the forts. The second point is the allowance granted for the Kamavisdar's palanquin. It should not be compared with the travelling allowance of modern days, or with the allowance granted for the Governor's household. In those days, palanquin and sunshades were granted to officers of special merit in recognition of their public service, as the British Indian government confers titles like Rai Bahadur or Khan Bahadur on distinguished public servants. All such honours were accompanied by suitable grants for their proper upkeep, because the Peshwa was anxious that his officers should not find their hard-won honours burdensome.

5. *Their Duties :*

The Mamlatdars and the Kamavisdars were the Peshwa's representatives in their districts. So their duties and responsibilities were of a most comprehensive character and embraced all possible aspects of affairs. They had to look after the welfare of the cultivator, they had to devise means for improving agriculture, they had to encourage new industries, they had to enquire into disputes of both civil and criminal nature, that appoint a Panchayet for decision. This how with does not exhaust the list of their innumerable cases duties. The Shibandi of the district was under their control and so was the police. Religious and social questions were of paramount importance to them for enquiry, and even the devotional phrase "that evil powers was not beyond their jurisdiction" they could compel the devotees "besides twelve majesty to recall the evil influence of the Minister, master. It is needless to say that Registrar or powers gave their owners ample opportunity. (5) Treason, corruption and the Maratha officers such as Potdar, did succumb to the charms of gold. Fryer Under-Broughton, writing at different times and in different courts, alluded to the Maratha officers' inordinate love of presents. Fryer says how an officer of Shivaji's court actually told the English ambassador that "if he would have his Work speedily effected, and without any

impediment, it was necessary to be at some more charge to present Officers with *Pamerins*, who were not in their List of Presents." Broughton similarly describes how Daulat Rao Sindhia did not hesitate to demand a *khelat* for a nephew that was no more, on the plea of soothing the feelings of the disconsolate mother. This love of presents, in vulgar language called bribe, was no monopoly of the Maratha officer alone. His ^{to} *Shahmahan*, or even his English, brother was ^{no} better. Hawkins and Roe's account of the peculiar officers' curiosity about the contents of ^{month} *merchants'* bales is not complimentary from the grand dignitaries; and Shakespeare's however, of "the justice in fair round belly only, but w ^{cap}on lined" found many imitators. in the army, ^{common} failing all over the world which point is the al ^{se} days were ready to wink at. *dar's* palanquin

the travelling *Jarakhdars* :

the allowance ^{and} Broughton's censures were meant hold. In ^{the} *officers* of the court. Our friends in the were ^{grat}—the *Kamavisdars* and the *Mamlatdars* ^{not} above the common temptation; ^{gover} as a check upon them were utilised the ^{hereditary} officers. Of these we have already come across one set—the district officers, known as *Deshmukhs* and *Deshpandes*, and we know they were used as a check on the *Mamlatdars*, and no accounts were passed, unless

corroborated by corresponding accounts from them (Elphinstone). The other set may be conveniently described as the provincial hereditary officers generally known as Darakhdars or feemen. These Darakhdars were always used as a check on the chief officers of every department, the army and the navy included. None of these hereditary officers could be dismissed by the Mamlatdar, nor could he compel them to perform any duties except those specifically assigned to them by long practice and custom. Not that the Mamlatdars never tried to do away with their independent subordinates; but in such cases the Darakhdar could confidently look towards the Peshwa's authority to back him and reinstate him in his ancestral office, and the peremptory order always ended with the usual phrase "that the work of the office should be taken from his hands." On the provincial staff besides twelve Karkuns there were (1) Dewan or Minister, (2) Auditor or Mazumdar, (3) the Registrar or Fadnavis, (4) Secretary or Daftardar, (5) Treasurer or Potnis, (6) Assay clerk or Potdar, (7) Petty Registrar or Sabhasad and (8) Under-Secretary or Chitnis. As these officers had not to depend on the Mamlatdar for their pay, they were in every respect independent of him. It was, therefore, quite natural that they were expected to be efficient checks on any intended malpractice on the part of the Mamlatdar and to

report to the central government all lapses on his part if any ever happened. Moreover their duties were divided and assigned in such a manner that the Mamlatdar could not act independently of them. "The *divan* as the chief factor under the *mamlatdar* countersigned all letters and orders. The Auditor or *majumdar* approved deeds or accounts before they went to the registrar or *fadnavis*. The *fadnavis* dated all deeds and orders, prepared a daily waste book, fastened notes to the money-bags, dated the yearly village rent settlements, and brought the books to the head-quarters. The *daftardar*, from the registrar's waste book, made up the ledger and sent a monthly abstract to the head-quarters. The *potnis* kept a record of collections and the balance of cash, and helped in writing the waste book and the ledger. The *potdar*, of whom there were always two, examined the coins. The *sabhasad* kept a register of petty suits and reported them to the *mamlatdar*. The *chitnis* wrote and answered despatches."¹³ A ninth officer the *Jamenis* is mentioned in a document of the time of the first Madhava Rao and his duties are enumerated as follows :

"(1) The records of the inspection of Jirayet and Bagayet lands by the inspecting officers, should be laid by them before the *Jamenis*,

¹³ Bombay Gazetteer, Poona Volume (XVIII), p. 332.

whose duty it will then be to fix the revenue demand after such enquiry as he may think necessary and to report the fact to the Karbhari.

(2) The Jamenis should receive all revenue accounts and watch the closing of the accounts and see that the collections and arrears are correctly noted.

(3) The Jamenis has authority to increase the revenue of a village or to grant remissions, or to reduce the revenue for a term of years.

(4) Orders for the recovery of arrears from villages should be issued by the Jamenis.

(5) Kowls for the abatement of revenue should be issued by the Jamenis.

(6) A ledger showing the amount received and the amount due from each village, should be prepared by the Jamenis from the day-book of the Fadnis." (Joshi's translation.)¹⁴

These Darakhbars, severally and jointly, served as a check not only upon the Mamlatdar but upon each other as well. A glance at the following two lists enumerating the duties of the Mazumdar and the Daftardar will show how the Mazumdar supervised the work of the Jamenis, Fadnis and Chitnis, and how the Daftardar while auditing the accounts submitted by the Kama-visdar had to explain every matter to the Fadnis. In the year 1764-65 a letter was written to

¹⁴ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 123-24.

Vyankat Narayan, Mamlatdar of Dharwar, recounting the duties of his Mazumdar, Ragho Gangadhar, as follows :

(1) He should see that the day-book is balanced every day.

(2) He should authenticate every letter and account prepared by the Fadnis or Chitnis.

(3) He should see that the salary registers of sowars and soldiers newly employed are correctly totalled. He should muster every month the sowars and soldiers already in service.

(4) He should prepare estimates of receipts and expenditure in regard to the portion of the taluka proposed to be entrusted to a Sub-Mamlatdar, and the detailed account to be taken from the Mamlatdar should be received through the Mazumdar.

(5) Change of Mamlatdars should not be made without his knowledge (B. P. Joshi's Translation).¹⁵

Another letter in the same year and to the same officer lays down the duties of the Daftardar as follows :

(1) The day-book should be written by the Fadnis and the ledger should be prepared from it by the Daftardar.

(2) The annual estimates of receipts and expenditure should be prepared by the Daftardar ; the detailed accounts submitted by the Kamavisdars

at the end of the year should be examined by him with reference to the records.

(3) He should enquire into loans advanced, and their recoveries.

(4) He should examine the accounts relating to the sowars entertained from the Mahal.

(5) He should explain every matter to the Fadnis, and they both to the officer Vyankatrao Narayan (Mamlatdar). Orders to subordinates should not be issued by the Fadnis direct, but through the Daftardar. During the Fadnis's absence his work should be done by the Daftardar. (Joshi's Translation).¹⁶

7. *Beheda and Rasad*:

* We may now turn to two more measures generally adopted to restrain the Mamlatdar from misgovernment. The first was the payment of a big advance paid at the time of his appointment to be realised later on from the revenue of the district under his charge. This advance served as a security against misconduct and at the same time relieved the Peshwa of his financial difficulties to a certain extent. Interest was however paid on this *rasad* at a rate varying from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per month. The second was the *beheda*. It was an estimate of possible income and expenditure most carefully drawn up

by experienced officers in the Peshwa's daftar, and with a knowledge of minute details as yet unsurpassed and unequalled. In his revenue collection the Mamlatdar had to be guided by this annual estimate or beheda and in the case of the Sub-Mamlatdar or Kamavisdar under him—the beheda was drawn up by the Mamlatdar's Mazumdar as we have already seen. But all these cautions could not entirely prevent evil practices in the Peshwa's government; and *antast* or bribe became a regular and quite an ordinary item in their accounts. Elphinstone remarks that “The sources of their profit were concealment of receipts (especially fees, fines, and other undefined collections), false charges for remissions, false musters, non-payment of pensions, and other frauds in expenditure. The grand source of their profit was an extra assessment above the revenue, which was called Sauder Warrid Puttee. It was levied to pay the expenses of the district not provided for by Government, and naturally afforded a great field for speculation; one of the chief of these expenses was called the Durbar Khurch or Untust. This was originally applied secretly to bribe the ministers and auditors. ‘By degrees, their bribes became established fees, and the account was audited like the rest; but as bribes were still required, another increase of collection took place for this purpose; and as

the auditors or accountants did not search minutely into these delicate transactions, the Mamlutdar generally collected much more for himself, than he did for his patrons." The Mamlatdar, however, took good care that the imposts might not fall heavy on the rayats, for it was to his interest that they should be well off and, as Elphinstone himself points out, the only party that suffered was the government.

The Mamlatdar and the Kamavisdar were generally appointed for short terms, and in Shivaji's time transfer from one district to another was frequent. During the Peshwa period, however, they generally succeeded in getting their term of office repeatedly renewed, unless they were guilty of any serious abuse of their authority ; and frequently the Mamlatdar was left in charge of the same district for thirty or forty years. After his death his son might succeed him in his office, not as a matter of right but as one of favour. Consequently the Mamlatdars thought they had permanent interest in the prosperity of their districts, and whatever they did they always remembered that the goose that lays the golden eggs must not be roughly handled. If a bad Mamlatdar intent on present gain at the cost of permanent interest forgot this axiom of good government, he was promptly removed from his office by the Peshwa. (This remark however does not apply to Baji Rao II.)

The small division called Mahals or Tarfs were also governed on the same principle. A non-hereditary officer, the Havaladar, was checked and assisted by two hereditary officers, Mazumdar and Fadnis in revenue matters. The duties of the Mahal Mazumdar and Mahal Fadnis corresponded to those of the provincial officers of the same names. In addition to these revenue officers there were in every Mahal four militia officers who demand our notice here. The Hashamnavis kept a roll showing each man's name, family name, his native village, arms, and pay. The Asham Fadnis had to keep the accounts of the militia and had also to keep records of the musters if there was no separate officer for that purpose. The Hazirnavis, as the name of his office implies, kept the muster roll, and the Asham Daftardar made the militia ledger book.

It is needless to say that these officers did not generally interfere in the internal administration of the village. The Mamlatdar or the Kamavisdar assessed the rent for each village in consultation with the Patil, sent a Shibandi force for revenue collection if the Patil asked for any, appointed Panchayets in civil and criminal cases if the Patil refused to do so, and of course entertained complaints against the village officers. In short, they served as a link between the local authorities at the base and the Secretariat at the top.

CHAPTER IV

IMPERIAL SECRETARIAT

The Secretariat, called by the Marathas the *Husur Duftar*, was a very big establishment, employing more than two hundred Karkuns, where records of all branches of the Peshwa's administration were preserved with the utmost care and order. An enquirer could confidently turn to the daftar-records for any information concerning the Peshwa's government, and in fact the materials of the present work are drawn mostly from the same source. "The general contents of the Duftur under the Peshwas," says Mr. J. Macleod,¹ "may be described as follows; *viz.*, all accounts rendered to the Government of the revenue and expenditure of the districts, with the settlements of them by Government; the accounts of districts rendered by the hereditary district officers; and those of villages by village officers, of farms, of customs, etc., accounts of all alienations of public revenue, whether Surinjam, Inam or otherwise, of the pay, rights, and

¹ Appendix to Mr. Elphinstone's Report, p. xxix.

privileges of the Government and village officers, accounts of the strength and pay of troops and the expenses of all civil, military and religious establishments. The Rozkirds (daily registers) were registers of all revenue transactions generally, together with all grants and payments, and more particularly the accounts of all contributions and exactions, levied on foreign states. The whole of which were considered and exhibited in one comprehensive view in the Turjamas. It is said that Nana Fadnavis introduced many improvements in the working of the daftar as well as in the accounts department in general, and it is no small tribute to the ability of the Maratha officers and the Maratha Karkuns that after the English occupation of Poona, documents concerning government transactions of all kinds for a period of eighty-eight years were found tolerably complete in this vast store-house of information. At the head of this great establishment was the Huzur Fadnavis, and it is needless to say that the very nature of this office required a man of the highest ability.

For convenience the Daftar was divided into several departments, the chief of which were the Chatle Daftar and the Ek Beriz Daftar. The latter department had to deal with accounts of all sorts, and was, therefore, permanently fixed at Poona while the Chatle Daftar was always under the direct supervision of the Fadnavis.

The Chatle Daftar was again subdivided into several branches, namely, the Fad, Beheda, Saranjam, etc. The Fad was the Fadnavis's own office. All sanads and orders were issued from this office. Here the Fadnavis checked and passed all accounts, and received informations from other departments. In the Fad were made and kept Rozkirds or daily transactions of all sorts. The Beheda department made the *Talebands*, *Ajamas* (estimate), and *Beheda* (budget) for the Fadnavis's information out of the accounts of income and expenditure annually submitted by the village and district officers. In the Talebands were shown in a small space a complete abstract of the actual receipt and expenditure of the revenue during the past year. The Ajamas or the estimate of possible income and expenditure for the current year was based on the Taleband, and from the information thus carefully collected and classified was framed the Beheda or the authorised budget for the guidance of the Kamavisdars and the Mamlatdars. These Behedas were framed with so much care and accuracy that the district officers found it very difficult to find any fault with them, and had to find out an excuse of exceptional nature for the smallest extra expenditure or remission of revenue. In the Saranjam department were kept accounts of Saranjam or military Jagirs and all *Dumalla* lands (land under double authority—where more than one person

had different rights). Separate departments were entrusted with military accounts and contribution, etc. "But these arrangements, however, varied with the pleasure of the Furnavees, or the business that might occur."

In the Ek Beriz Daftar at Poona were kept classified accounts from all other departments and here were framed the Tarjuma—showing the total receipt, expenditure and balance of the government income for the year, and Khataunis or "abstracts of all expenditure arranged alphabetically under their proper heads." It is therefore no wonder that armed with the knowledge supplied by their department the daftar-officers successfully supervised the work of the village and district establishments.

It will not be out of place here to add a sentence or two about the reliability of the daftar-officers, specially because Mr. Macleod has some doubt upon that point. In all cases of proprietorship the Maratha watandar, if he failed to produce his sanad, referred the government official to the daftar. The British officers were on several occasions referred to the Poona daftar for copies of the original grants by the Maratha Jagirdars. Unless they had complete confidence in the authenticity of the papers in the daftar and the honesty of the daftar-officers, they would certainly have not relied so much on the Secretariat for copies of their family papers. Thus

writes the then representative of the Parasnis family to Henry Brown "papers relating to our property are in the Marathi Daftar of the Peshwa."² The descendant of Visaji Krishna Biniwale wrote to the same officer "of the old papers we have got copies only which we send for your inspection. The originals will be found in the daftar."³

The Daftar, however, was neglected during the administration of that bad prince Baji Rao II and it fell into complete disorder. "The Daftar was not only much neglected," says Macleod, "but its establishment was almost entirely done away and people were even permitted to carry away the records, or do with them what they pleased."⁴

² *Kaifiyats Yadis*, p. 129.

³ *Ibid*, p. 154.

⁴ This short chapter on the Huzur Daftar is entirely based on Mr. Macleod's account. Sardar Khande Rao Chintaman Mehendale of Poona kindly lent me a copy of a very rare Marathi work published in 1859 and entitled *Iniquities of the Inam Commission in the Presidency of Bombay compiled from the published selections from Govt Records and other sources exposed for the information of Enamdars, etc.* This work comments adversely on the reliability of the Daftar records, but it should be noted that it was nothing but a party pamphlet and it was its interest to discredit these records.

According to this work the Peshwa's Daftar was divided into two main departments:

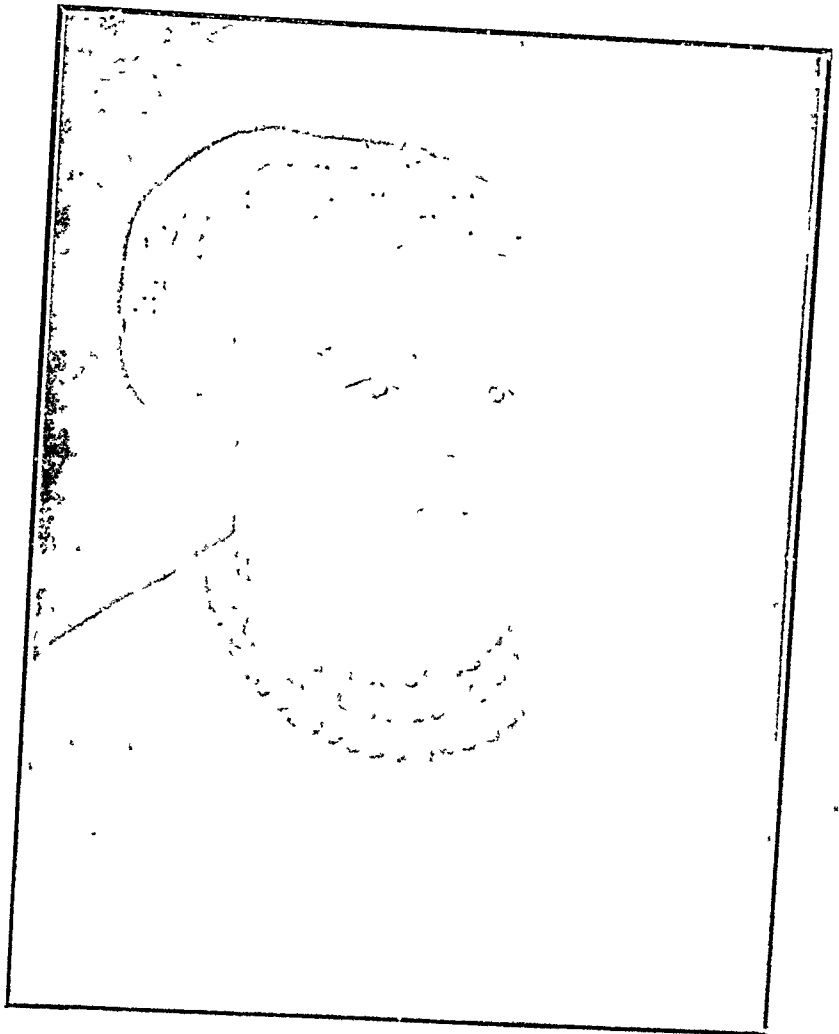
- (1) Huzur Daftar.
- (2) Mahal Daftar.

The work entrusted to the Huzur Daftar fell under the following heads: (1) Rozkird, (2) Nemnuk Beheda, (3) Ajmas, (4) Jhaddi, (5) Taleband, (6) Ghadni, (7) Tarjuma, (8) Saranjam Yadi and (9) Tharavpat.

CHAPTER V

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

The revenue policy of the Peshwas was based on the principle of securing the prosperity of the tax-payer. The Maratha financier never forgot that the government can after all only share the wealth of the country with the governed, and although the income of the government can be temporarily raised by exacting a large share, its permanent increase can only be secured by encouraging the people to produce more wealth. True to this principle they often preferred to postpone present enjoyment for future gain. They would watch and help the growth of a new suburb or a new market town without exacting a single pie for *hashil* or customs duties for six or seven years, and then draw a tariff list (with utmost attention to minute details of which the Maratha officer was a master) on the *istawa* principle (that of annual increment). Thus the maximum taxation would again be postponed for another five



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or seven years. They would pursue the same policy for bringing fallow and waste lands into cultivation, for encouraging profitable industries, and they tried to counteract the evil influences of perpetual disorder and insecurity by making the assessment flexible. As a result of this policy Wellington found the Maratha country highly cultivated and Fitzclarence writing in 1819 described the Peshwa's territory as "one of the finest in India returning richly to his treasury."¹ Captain William Gordon, who was deputed to the Poona court in 1739, was favourably impressed with the revenue policy of the Peshwa. He wrote,—“Bajirao has a great extent of country, to appearance more fertile and valuable than any other I had passed through. *** His territories are well peopled, and the poorer sort, in the farming way, are rendered easy in their rents, which causes his extent of dominion to be in a very flourishing condition, more so than any other in the possession of the Marathas.”^{1a} Even the Jagirdars or feudal Barons, who exercised sovereign authority within their fiefs were not always indifferent to the welfare of their subjects. On the 28th August, 1818, General Munro wrote to Mountstuart Elphinstone,—“All the branches

¹ Fitzclarence, *Journal of a Route across India*, p. 286.

^{1a} Forrest, *Selections from State Papers preserved in the Bombay Secretariat, Maratha Series*, Vol I, p. 79.

of the Putwurdhu family are popular in the country. They treat the inhabitants with great kindness, and their lands are well cultivated.^{11b}

The sources of the Peshwa's income can be classified as follows

- (1) Land Revenue and the Demesne land
- (2) Customs duties and income-tax in some form
- (3) Forest
- (4) Mints
- (5) Courts of Law

1 *Land Revenue*

We shall discuss the land revenue first, as the most important of these items. The Demesne lands were divided into *sherz* (cultivated fields), *kuans* (grass lands), *bag* (garden), and *ambanai* (orchards). These were as we have already seen, under the direct management of the district officer, Mamlatdar or the Kamavisdar as the case might be, and were often sublet to Upri tenants or leaseholders.

The Patil, as we know, was responsible for revenue collection. When the time for collection came, the Mahar called the rent-payers to the village *Chaudh* where the Patil held his

^{11b} Capt. West, *A Memoir of the States of the Southern Maratha Country*, p 37. And Gleig *The Life of Major General Sir Thomas Munro*, Vol II, p 270.

office. The Kulkarni or the village account-keeper was present there with his records to assist the Patil in his work and so were the Potdars. The latter assayed and stamped the money when paid, for which the rent-payer got a receipt from the Kulkarni. When the collection was over, the money was sent to the Kamavisdar with a letter under the charge of the Chaugula, and a similar letter, often a duplicate copy, was sent to the Deshmukh under the charge of the Mahar. The Chaugula got a receipt from the Mamlatdar for the sum paid, which was carefully preserved in the Kulkarni's bundle of village accounts. Sometimes a Shibandi was sent by the officer in charge of the district or Tarf to help the Patil in his work of collection. The revenue was generally paid in four instalments and sometimes in three.

2. *Mokasa Bakti and Sahotra :*

Here we may also explain some terms which will often appear unintelligible to the reader of the old records.² The Marathas, unlike the modern European nations, did not extend their empire by peaceful penetration. Their victims had no reason to misunderstand their

² For this explanation, as for many other items of information, I am indebted to the valuable report of Elphinstone, on the territories conquered from the Peshwa. (2nd Edition, pp. 22-23.)

method. Shivaji invaded the territories of his enemies and offered them the option of purchasing security or submitting to plunder. The price that he first demanded was the Sardeshmukhi or Rs. 10 for every 100 levied by the Government. To the Sardeshmukhi was subsequently added another claim, that of the Chauth or 25 per cent. of the total Government collection. The whole of the Chauth was reserved for the Government treasury. The *Babti* or 25 per cent. of the Chauth was collected for the Raja by his principal officers, *viz.*, the Pratinidhi, the Peshwa, and the Pant Sachiv,—the rest was called the *Mokasa* and was partitioned among the Sardars for maintaining troops. Six per cent. of the whole Chauth was, however, reserved for the Pant Sachiv and was called the *Sahotra* and three per cent. was reserved as *Nadgaunda* to be granted at different times to different persons according to the pleasure of the King. Thus only sixty-six per cent. of the *Chauth* could be available for other *Mokasa*-holders. The Sardeshmukhi also came to be similarly divided afterwards. When the territories paying the Chauth and the Sardeshmukhi were finally annexed to the Maratha dominions, the remaining three-fourths of the revenue were styled as *Jagir* in contradistinction to the Chauth. It is needless to add that the Jagir also was granted in *inam*. As a result of this complex division, and

complicated arrangement different individuals might have different claims over the same village. One might claim the *Sahotra*, a second, half the *Mokasa*, a third the other half, while to a fourth might have been granted some percentage of of the *Jagir*. If all these claimants had sent different collectors, as they sometimes did, the rayat would have been subjected to unnecessary inconvenience. The duty of collection in such cases was, therefore, for common convenience entrusted to one of the grantees only.³

3. *Principle and Method of Assessment :*

Now to turn to the method of assessment, its merits and demerits. Agriculture was then, as it is now, the principal industry of the country. Consistently with their policy of increasing the total wealth of the country, the Maratha revenue officer had to pay full attention to the improvement of agriculture. The Peshwas never forgot to remind their officers that their principal duty was to encourage agriculture, and to keep the rayats contented. They were also asked to base their assessment on actual inspection of the condition of cultivation and careful survey of the cultivated area. To illustrate this we may here quote several

³ For a learned discussion of the policy of this distribution of revenue among the principal officers of the state, its origin, aim, merits, and demerits, see Sardesai's *Marathi Ryasat*, Vol. II, pp. 119-142.

documents containing instructions to Kamavisdars and the Mamlatdars at the time of their appointment.

When Bahiro Ram was put in charge of the Mamla Revdanda in 1747, he was instructed among other things to take steps to plant cocoanut trees at the rate of five trees per year, for every hundred trees then existing.⁴ Among the instructions issued to Naro Trimbak of Prant Rajpuri (1748-49) occurs the following significant sentence—"bullocks and buffaloes purchased for agricultural purposes by the rayats should be exempted from octroi for five years."⁵ In 1760-61 Lakshman Bhikaji Mamlatdar of Wan and Dindori was told that the villages should be surveyed. The lands should be classed as superior ordinary and inferior and also as *jirayat* and *bagayat* as well as *patsthal* and *motsthal* (watered by canals and watered by Mot) and should be measured. The result should be reported to the Amin, who would fix the rate to be charged. The land should be assessed accordingly.⁶ That waste lands in these two Parganas should be brought under cultivation within two or three years. In case of failure in this respect, the Kamavisdar would not be continued in his

⁴ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 259-261.

⁵ P. D., Vol. III, p. 265.

⁶ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 289-295.

office. That in case of failure of crops or disturbance in the country, remission would be granted according to the usual practice.

In fact the Peshwas were so much bent upon the improvement of agriculture that they took almost all the means known to modern governments for that purpose, the most remarkable being their attempt to create for the cultivators a permanent interest in their land by giving them long lease of five to seven years, and by forbidding sale and mortgage of land. The last measure was specially enforced during the administration of the second Madhava Rao, as will be proved by the following documents:

In 1774-75, the Mamlat of Pargana Amod in Prant Gujrat was given to Madhava Nana Shet, Raghunath Hari the former incumbent being dismissed. The following are some of the instructions issued for the guidance of the new Mamlatdar:

(1) Waste lands should be brought under cultivation and a detailed report of cultivation should be submitted to the Sarsubha annually. *Tagai* should be given in the sowing season and you should behave according to the guidance of the Sarsubha and not otherwise.

(2) The Zamindars of the aforesaid Pargana exact from the rayats more than their customary dues, you should enquire into the matter and report to the Huzur the amount of the extra exaction.

(3) Land mortgaged or sold in the above Pargana should be taken back and restored to the rayat. No mortgage or sale should in future be allowed.⁷

A similar set of instructions was issued in 1784-85, when the Mamlat of Pargana Hasot in Prant Gujrat was transferred from Sakharam Sheshadri to Balaji Ram.⁸ The new officer was told that he should see that the cultivation of the said Pargana be made according to the *istawa* and the details of the cultivation be submitted every year to the Sarsubha. If however the amount of the cultivation fell short of the *istawa* contract, the Government loss should be compensated by the Kamavidars.

(1) The Zamindars of the aforesaid Pargana take from the rayats more than their customary dues. You should enquire into the matter and report to the Sarsubha.

(2) Lands sold or mortgaged in the said Pargana should be restored to the rayats and no such mortgage of sale should in future be allowed.

It is noteworthy that the Punjab Government have also recently made attempts to stop the alienation of agricultural lands by the prohibition of sale and mortgage of such land by the poor peasant. The second item of the instructions

⁷ P. D., Vol. VI, pp. 265-268.

⁸ P. D., Vol. VI, pp. 272-276.

enumerated in the last document also demands our notice, as it requires the Kamavisdar to compensate any loss that the government might incur from decrease in cultivation. Thus it was not merely the duty of these revenue officers to pay their best attention to the improvement of agriculture, but also their interest to do so, as the increase or decrease of cultivation in their districts affected their purse so much.

The Peshwa's government had good reasons to encourage cultivation, as the assessment was always based on '*pahani*' or actual inspection. We have numerous documents enumerating the names as well as the remuneration of the '*Pahanidars*' or survey and inspection officers sent to different Parganas in different years. One dated 1742-43 runs as follows :

“Inspecting officers sent for inspecting Jirayat lands :

Officers sent to Tarf Nagothne should get at the following rate, after one month till the work of inspection was over. Ragho Ballal Amin Rs. 8, Hari Balaji Karkun Rs. 8, Rs. 16 in total, over and above these two sepoys and one measurer (parwari), three in all. Given from Honaji Balkavade's establishment. Blank sheets of papers for writing and a piece of rough cotton cloth.” Similar remuneration and establishment were granted to Naro Ballal Amin sent to Tarf Pal, but his Karkun got a salary of Rs. 7 per

month Pahanidars were also sent to Tarf Nane Mawal⁹ Bagayat lands were also assessed after inspection and we have already seen in connection with the village system that the Patil as the guardian of the cultivators interest could demand a pahanı whenever he thought that his village had been over assessed It seems that the principle of 'no pahanı no extra assessment' was generally recognised by the government A letter of the time of the second Madhava Rao may be quoted here for illustration

"The officer of Prant Kalyan Bhiwandi represented that the *jamabandi* of the province could not be fixed without inspection of the lands and asked sanction to the expenditure of Rs 700 or 800 on account of diet money to officers making the inspection He was ordered to make the inspection, if it was calculated to raise the revenue, and to take care that the inspection was honestly made, and that no oppression was caused to the rayats Rs 400 to 500 were sanctioned for expenditure as diet money (summary by K B Marathe)¹⁰

4 *Classification of Lands*

In fact, assessment without inspection was impossible For not only were the lands divided into three classes superior, ordinary and inferior, for revenue purposes, but the condition of irrigation

⁹ P D, Vol III, pp 205 206
¹⁰ P D, Vol VI, p 226

and the nature of the crops had to be taken into consideration at the time of fixing the land tax. Old cultivated lands were taxed at a rate higher than those recently brought under the plough. Thus, the scale of land-tax as well as the manner of payment differed in different parts of the country. We get the following rate for Tarf Haveli Pal¹¹ for the year 1740-41, from a document of the time of Balaji Baji Rao Peshwa.

(1) Rice lands should be assessed as before at 10 maunds per bigha including the levy on account of Babti but excluding the levies of Hakkdars.

(2) Lands producing sugar-cane should be assessed at Rs. 5 per bigha as before.

(3) Vegetable-producing lands should pay Rs. 2 per bigha as before.

(4) Lands under summer crops should be assessed at Rs. 1-8 per bigha as before.

During the administration of the same Peshwa in the same year a kaul was granted to the village of Kathapur in Samat Koregaon of Prant Wai fixing the rate of assessment as follows:¹²

Class of land.	Maunds.	Payli per Bigha.
Superior	... $3\frac{1}{4}$... 1
Ordinary	... $2\frac{1}{2}$... 2
Inferior	... $1\frac{3}{4}$... 1

¹¹ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 202-203.

¹² P. D., Vol. III, p. 203.

A third document from the daftar of the same Peshwa (1749 50) shows the difference in the rate of assessment for black and rocky soils, as well as for old cultivated lands and that brought recently under cultivation. The terms of a kaul granted to the village of Pimpalgaon Baswant in Pargana Chandwad were as follows

(†) Jirayat land having black soil, already under cultivation should be assessed at Rs 2 per bigha, land of a rocky description, already under cultivation should be assessed at Re 1 per bigha. In regard to land newly brought under cultivation the following rates should be applied

	<i>Black soil per bigha</i>			<i>Rocky soil per bigha</i>		
	Rs	A	P	Rs	A	P
1st year	0	4	0	0	2	0
2nd „	0	8	0	0	4	0
3rd „	1	0	0	0	8	0
4th „	1	8	0	0	12	0
5th „	2	0	0	1	0	0

(2) Bagayat lands already under cultivation including lands bearing sugar cane and other crops should be assessed at Rs 10 per bigha. Waste lands newly brought under cultivation, and irrigated by canal, should be assessed as under

1st year	Rs	5	per bigha
2nd „	„	6	„
3rd „	„	7	„
4th „	„	8	„
5th „	„	10	„

In the case of the jirayat land turned into bagayat by the sinking of new wells the following assessment should be imposed:

1st year	...	Re. 1	...	per bigha
2nd "	...	Rs. 2	...	"
3rd "	..	" 3	...	"
4th "	...	" 4	..	"
5th "	..	" 5	...	"

Mango trees in bagayat lands should not be separately taxed. Mango trees belonging to Patils and others should, when they begin to bear fruit, be inspected and taxed at the rate of Re. 1 per thousand fruits. Mango trees belonging to the government should be protected, and the proceeds of the fruit thereof be credited to the government.¹³ Finally the document wound up with the instruction that only about a tenth part of the village was under cultivation. The remaining portion should be brought under cultivation within five years. This document clearly shows how the Maratha financiers managed to secure for the government a due share of the unearned increment, without however diminishing the cultivator's zeal for further improvement of his farm land. We will quote only one more document to show the difference of rates for different crops. The villages in Taluka Neral held under the Mokasis

¹³ Parasnis's translation, P. D., Vol. III, pp. 211-212.

were assessed at the following rates after the usual pahanī in the year 1772-73 (Administration of the first Madhava Rao)

	Rs	A	P	
1st class land	5	0	0	per bigha
2nd „	4	0	0	„
3rd „	3	0	0	„
Rabi lands	1	8	0	„
Warkas land	1	8	0	„
Hemp lands	5	0	0	„
Sugar-cane lands	5	0	0	„
Palm trees	0	4	0	for every tree
Cocconut trees	0	8	0	„

“A further addition of half the above rates was levied on account of the Mokasis except on waste land ¹⁴

It is evident from these documents that payment was made both in kind and cash, probably according to the convenience of the rayats. The rayat was often permitted to commute rent in kind into rent in cash, although it seems that the Peshwa sometimes felt disinclined to encourage such commutation. In 1743-44 Naro Ramchandra, of Jila Mawal, was directed not to commute the land revenue in kind, into a money payment, but the Peshwa's order was by no means absolute ¹⁵. For the officer was not only permitted to use his discretion

¹⁴ P. D., Vol VII, pp 5 12

¹⁵ P. D., Vol III, pp 2.2 273

but was also furnished with a complete price list for his use in granting commutation. The list is interesting as in all probability it gives us the then prevailing market rates, and is therefore quoted below :

	Rs.	A.	P.
Rice per maund	1	4 0
Nagli per maund	1	8 0
Wari Sawa per maund	1	4 0
Til four Paylis, Kaili	1	0 0
Jawari per Khandi	35	0 0
Gram "	40	0 0
Wheat "	40	0 0
Ghi, two seers by weight	...	per rupee.	

The following year a similar letter was addressed to the officer in charge of Rajpuri, asking him to realise in kind as far as possible the arrears of the preceding year. But in case the rayats did not possess any grain the officer was instructed to allow money payment at the rate of Rs. 15 per khandi.¹⁶ (One payli=4 seers and one khandi=20 maunds.)

It seems that the rayats preferred to pay in cash, and their prayer for such commutation, so far as we can infer from the documents at our disposal, was favourably considered. In the year 1745-46 at the prayer of Sadashiv Lakshman another price list was drawn up for commutation of rent in kind into that in cash

for the benefit of the rayats of Prant Mawal who had fallen in arrears¹⁷ This price list is also quoted here, for a cursory glance at it will show that the price differed from that of the previous list The arrears of land revenue in kind in Prant Mawal were ordered to be realised in cash at the following rates

Rice	...	Rs 30	per Khandi
Nagli ¹⁸	.	" 35	"
Sawa wari ¹⁹		" 30	"
Sesamum	...	" 70	"
Jowri and Bajri	.	" 45	"
Kathan (Wheat, grain, etc)	"	70	"
Ghi at 2 seers by weight per Rupee.			

Two years later the rayats of Tarf Nane Mawal and Paun Mawal, were at the request of Naro Keshav permitted to pay in cash part of their arrears of land revenue in kind.

5 *Payment in cash usually permitted :*

"A letter to Naro Ramchandra There is an arrear of seventy khandis of grain out of the land revenue of the years San Sit and San Saba in Tarfs Nane Mawal and Paun Mawal Rajashri Naro Keshav came to the Huzur and prayed that part of the arrears might be commuted into money payment and the realisation of the rest might be postponed Therefore commutation

¹⁸ *Cynosurus Corocanus*

¹⁷ P. D., Vol. III, p. 224.

¹⁹ *Coix Barbata*



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of twenty khandis out of the total due has been permitted. Take cash for rabi crops at the rate of three paylis per Rupee, and for cereals, nachna, wari and rice at the rate of six paylis per Rupee. The remainder (is) to be postponed for the present and to be realised at the coming season."¹⁸ The price list drawn up in this case is worth quoting for comparison with the previous list. Rabi crops are quoted here at the rate of three paylis per Rupee and cereals like nachna (*Eleusine Corocana*) and wari (*Coix Barbata*) and rice are valued at six paylis per Rupee.

6. . *Special treatment of Brahmans :*

• During the administration of the next Peshwa, the first Madhava Rao, we find the Brahmans claiming commutation for money payment as a customary favour shown to them. In 1767-68, a Brahman of Chambharli, in Tarf Tungartan of Prant Karnala, Balambhat Godbole by name, prayed for commutation and the land revenue payable by him was fixed at the rate of Rs. 5-2-6 per bigha.¹⁹

The assessment may appear quite impartial on the face of it if we compare it with our table of money-rent already quoted, but that it was an undue favour can be proved beyond

¹⁸ P. D., Vol. III, p. 230.

¹⁹ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 2.

doubt by a document of the time of Balaji Baji Rao. It shows how the Brahmans of Tarf Tungartan, who used to pay at the rate of ten maunds of rice per bigha when the Tarf was under the Angria, got their rent in kind converted into a cash payment of Rs. 5-2-3 per bigha. Even at the most liberal calculation they could not expect such a low assessment if the market price of the grains had been taken into consideration.

A Sanad to Ramaji Mahadev, officer in charge of Salsette: "The Brahmans of Tarf Tungartan have represented that when the aforesaid Tarf was under the Angria, rent was exacted at the rate of ten maunds of rice per bigha. At present the aforesaid Mahal has come under the Sarkar; it has been, therefore, prayed that the Brahmans should be assessed at the rate prevalent in Prant Kalyan. So rent has been fixed at the rate of Rs. 5-2-3 per bigha. Realise accordingly. Brahmans in Kalyan Prant are not called upon to render forced service or to pay any tax on purchases; accordingly, do not make those demands on the above mentioned Brahmans too."²⁹ This partiality towards the Brahmans imposed, as Justice Ranade has pointed out, an unnecessary burden upon the finances of the land, and contributed not a little to the break down of the Peshwas' power.

²⁹ P. D., Vol. III, p. 214.

7. *Cocoanut and other Plantations :*

Among the instructions drawn up for the guidance of district officers we have seen one drawing their attention towards the planting of cocoanut trees. In one of our tables of land revenue, we have also seen that every cocoanut tree meant for the Peshwa's treasury an additional income of eight annas. Evidently cocoanut plantation was, therefore, very profitable for the government. But, as I have pointed out, the government knew how to wait, and was in no indecent haste to exact a share of the Rayats' hard-won profits. As we all know, cocoanut plantations do not immediately pay ; consequently, labour and capital, invested in them, lay idle for a considerably long period, and the planters required special inducements and concessions. The Peshwa's government, therefore, refrained from taxing these costly plants until they were twenty years old.

"Should any person plant the following trees no tax shall be levied on their account for the number of years specified below :

Cocoanut trees	...	18 or 20 years according to the nature of the land.
Betelnut trees	...	15 years.
Undani tree	...	12 "

After the lapse of the above period the following levies shall be made

For each cocoanut tree annas four and a load of loppings For each cocoanut tree used by Bhandaris (liquor manufacturers) Rupee one and a load of loppings For each betelnut tree, anna 1 For each Undani tree, annas 3¹ ²¹

Similarly in a kaul granted to the Taluka Suvarnadurg for the better cultivation of bagayat lands, we read—‘ According to custom, cocoanut trees, on sandy soil, should be exempted from taxation until they are eighteen, and on red soil until twenty years old Betelnut trees, jack trees, and Undani trees should not be taxed until they are fifteen and twelve years of age, respectively Then each cocoanut tree should pay at the rate of 4 annas, Bhandari cocoanut at the rate of Re 1, betelnut tree one anna and Undani and jack tree three annas respectively per year²²

Thus cultivation of the specially profitable crops was encouraged by the adoption of special measures and special concessions

8 *Waste Lands*

We have already seen how specially lenient assessment was made for bringing waste lands into cultivation During the administration of the second Madhava Rao, the government

²¹ P. D., Vol VI, pp 242-245

²² P. D., Vol VI, pp 246-247

went further. It seems that the rocky parts of Talukas Anjanvel and Suvarnadurg were specially unsuitable for farming purposes. The documents say that even trees and grass did not grow there. The Maratha peasants and the Peshwa's government were not, however, daunted by the niggardliness of nature, and the peasants offered to level the hill tops and fill up the *nalas* with newly-brought earth and thereby convert nature's wilderness into teeming fields if suitable terms were offered them. The Peshwa's government was equally prompt in coming forward, and the following well acceptable terms were offered:

"1. Should any person bring an entirely rocky ground under cultivation by covering it with earth, and by providing embankments around it, half the land shall be given him as Inam, and the remaining half shall be continued rent-free for twenty years, and at reduced rates for five years more, and shall, after that period, be subjected to full assessment.

2. Should any person reclaim cultivable land on the seacoast by providing embankments, one-fourth of the land shall be given to him as Inam and the remaining portion shall be continued rent-free and at reduced rates, for such periods as, upon a consideration of the money and labour spent, may seem fit." 23.

Naro Anant Parchure, Mahajan of Kasba Guhagar, came to the Huzur at the Mukkam of fort Purandhar, and represented that, formerly, there were bagayat lands in the Taluka Anjanvel. Lately, however, the crop did not grow so well, and the government tax, therefore, was felt to be heavy ; the Rayats, therefore, became disheartened, and every year the cultivation of bagayat lands became less. If the Swami, however, granted a kaul of remission and a rate of cash payment, the Rayats will regain hope and will renew cultivation. The Rayats expected to convert rocky places, where trees and grass did not grow at all, into new fields by spreading earth (brought from elsewhere) over the area and to level the rocks by breaking stone, and to convert them into new fields by filling *nalas* and *odhas* with earth. Therefore, if half the land, so reclaimed, was allowed rent-free for twenty years, and at reduced rent for five years more to the cultivator who might reclaim it, cultivation of these lands would be undertaken. Therefore taking the question of the improvement (literally abundance) of cultivation into consideration, a kaul of remission (*mafi*) and an *istawa* rate (gradual increase) to the following purport is granted to those who will undertake bagayat cultivation and reclamation of land in the aforesaid manner.

1. The Rayats expect to convert the rocky soil of the Taluka into new fields by bringing

earth from elsewhere and by breaking the stones of the rocks and filling the natural ditches and depressions (*nala* and *odha*) with earth. He who will do so, will get as Inam half the land reclaimed by him, and will be permitted to enjoy the other half rent-free for twenty years, at a reduced rate for five years more, and at the usual rate afterwards.

2. Rayats expect to reclaim cultivable lands, in the aforesaid Taluka, now engrossed in the sea water, by constructing dams. If any one does so, he will get as Inam one-fourth of the land reclaimed, and the terms and periods of remission of rent and Istawa for the remaining three-fourths will be settled according to the amount of labour and money spent for the reclamation.

9. *Remission of Rent :*

Though the Peshwas tried so much to encourage reclamation of waste lands, they did not neglect the lands already under cultivation or the cultivators who worked them. Whenever any famine raged, or the village was plundered, or rain fell short, or the crops failed for some other reason, the Peshwa's government never hesitated to grant a remission of rent, either partial or full, and sometimes for two years or more. When the village of Kanu in Tarf Nane was burnt in the year 1745-46, land revenue to

the extent of one khandi and twelve maunds was remitted ²⁴

In the year 1747-48, Ramchandra Ballal, officer in charge of the Parganas Bakvada and Jalalabad in Sarkar Biyyagad, represented that his districts were visited by a terrible famine, and in spite of his attempts at relief made in the shape of tagai advancement, several people had already succumbed to the effects of the scarcity of food. He therefore requested a reduction of the assessment for four years and his prayer was granted ²⁵

In the year 1750-51, the villagers of Pachora, Pargana Wan, went to Poona and prayed for a remission of rent for the failure of crops and a remission of Rs 1,313 out of Rs 2,613 was granted. The Rayats were further permitted to pay off the remaining Rs 1,300 in four annual instalments ²⁶

During the administration of the First Madhava Rao, the village of Alandi in Tarf Chakan of Prant Junnar had been plundered in the year 1770-71, and on the representations of the Deshpande of the Tarf, the Peshwa granted full remission of rent for two years ²⁷

One thing, in these kauls, is worth noticing as it leaves no doubt about the motive of

²⁴ P. D., Vol. III, p. 224

²⁵ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 226-227

²⁶ P. D., Vol. III, p. 231

²⁷ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 18-19

the Peshwa in granting such remissions. It is always clearly stated that the kaul is granted in view of the improvement of cultivation. Although the Peshwa's government was always ready to help the Rayat in his distress, it did not forget the common prudence of enquiring into the genuineness of the alleged cases of difficulty and their extent. The following case may be cited as typical.²⁸

"In 1763-64, Bhikaji Vishwanath, Havaladar of Tarf Khed Chakan and the Deshmukh and the Deshpande of Sarkar Junnar represented that the villages of Prant Junnar had been plundered and burnt by the Mughals; that it was therefore necessary that the Subhedar should offer some concessions to the cultivators, that the Subhedar, however, had not come and the sowing season was passing away. They asked permission to issue kauls to the Rayats. The following concession were consequently granted:

1. Villages which had been totally burnt down and robbed of cattle, forage and grain to be exempt from assessment for one year.
2. Villages partially burnt and partially plundered, to be subject to half the assessment for one year.
3. Villages which had been plundered but not burnt, to be subject to one-third assessment for one year.

²⁸ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 19-20. (Joshi's translation)

4. Villages which saved themselves by paying a subsidy to be subject to half the assessment for one year.

5. Villages which have received no harm, to be subject to full assessment.

6. The assessment for the following year to be fixed afterwards according to the circumstances of each village."

10. Policy of Taxation:

The last sentence in the above document strikes the keynote of the Maratha policy of taxation. Every man was to be taxed in proportion to his resources; not a pie more, not a pie less; this was the instruction that the Peshwas gave to revenue officers and this was the prayer that the Rayat made when he applied for a revision of assessment.

We have, in the foregoing pages, tried to show the measures adopted in connection with cases of general distress which affected villages and sometimes Tarfs and Parganas, but there were instances of individual distress. These arose specially from the misconduct of the Peshwa's own soldiers. We find in several documents, complaints of plunder and consequent loss, because the Peshwa or some of his high officers had encamped in the neighbourhood. In such cases the amount of loss was ascertained generally in the presence of the District Officer, and

the affected parties were duly compensated. In the year 1768-69, the Peshwa Madhava Rao I had encamped at Garpir, Kasba Puna. The damage in this case was done in pitching the Peshwa's tent in some cultivated fields and also in erecting a temporary stable for his elephants. The villagers got Rs. 162 as compensation.²⁹ In the year 1773-74, some crops were injured in Kasba Supe in course of the Peshwa Madhava Rao II's state tour. Ananda Rao Trimbak, Subhedar of the Pargana, enquired into the amount of loss and the Rayats got a suitable compensation.³⁰

11. Irrigation:

The remission of rent in times of difficulty, and payment of compensation in case of damage done by the government, were no doubt good measures; but these were by no means all that the Peshwas did for their subjects. The question of irrigation and tagai grant did not escape their good care for effectual irrigation of cultivated areas from the earliest times of Indian history, as can be proved by Kautilya's *Arthashastra*. Kalhana's *Raja Tarangini* and the Girnar rock inscription of the Shaka Satrap Rudradamana. The Peshwas also followed this traditional Hindu method for improving agriculture. Irrigation

²⁹ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 21-22.

³⁰ P. D., Vol. VI, p. 253.

by aqueduct was very common and this gave origin to the word 'patsthal' (from *pat*, an elevated water-course to convey water to a plantation or field), and that well was also used for irrigation purposes may be proved by the word 'motsthal'. But generally rain and river water was stored up for future use by the construction of dams. Sometimes the entire expense for building a new dam or of repairing an old one was granted by the government while the government frequently gave a part of the necessary expenses while the remainder was levied by public subscription.

"A letter to Govind Rao Yadava Kamavisdar of Pargana Kopal in Taluka Dharwar. The rice lands of the Pargana were irrigated by means of a dam in a canal in the Tungabhadra, the dam was damaged by rain. Two thousand Hons have recently been granted for repairing the dam, therefore, get it carefully repaired and the above-mentioned sum shall be deducted from the revenue of your Pargana." ³¹

"A letter to the Mokadam of Mauja-Nasrapur, Tarf Khedebare. Lakshman Krishna has been ordered to construct a dam near Shri Baneshwar in the aforesaid Mauja at an expense of Rs 800. It has been settled that half of the sanctioned expenditure, Rs 400, should be given by the

government and the other half should be realised from those whose lands were to be irrigated. The owners of such lands should, therefore, pay according to their share of half the sanctioned expenditure and you should also pay the share due to your land without making any objection.”³²

12. *Tagai* :

The tagai served two purposes. It supplied the Rayats with necessary capital at a time of scarcity and famine, and at the same time saved them from the clutches of the money-lenders (Shahukars). The Peshwas were a century ago as much conscious of the impoverishing effect of a high rate of interest as the British Government is to-day. The Co-operative Credit Societies were still undreamt of, but the Peshwas tried their best to undo the evil in their own way. The economic theory of *Laissez Faire*, once popular and now practically rejected in Europe, was still unknown ; and the Peshwa, as the father of his people, effectually interfered with the industrial organisation of the country. Such intervention was often beneficial, and there is no doubt that it was so, when he tried to save his Rayats from the cruel exactions of the unscrupulous. Although it will sound shocking to the worshippers of law, the Peshwas frequently excused emburdened tenants from paying

³² P. D., Vol. VII, p. 18.

interest and compelled the money-lenders to grant their victims easy terms of payment. At another place we have seen how the Zamindars and Patils of Taluka Shivner, unable to make their grievances known in any other way, had seceded to Kasba Ale; one of these grievances was that the Rayats were over-burdened with debt and an enquiry was demanded as to the justice of the money-lender's claims. Their demand and the government order have been summed up in the document in question as follows: "You represent that in different villages the Rayats are in debt to the Sawkars (money-lenders). If the just claim is settled after examining the accounts, and if we find that an adequate sum in cash is wanting for payment you will repay the debt from the produce of the villages (grains, etc.). An enquiry about the justice of the claims will be made and when you find the interest too high you should not pay that, but a reasonable rate of interest should be fixed and the debt should be liquidated by instalments out of the real produce of the village (grains, etc.)" ³³

It is needless to point out that mere legal suppression of usury is useless. So long as there is a need for capital, men in want will borrow at any interest when money is not available

on reasonable terms. The tagai removed this need. It was practically a state loan although the Mamlatdar had to provide for it out of his own resources. The Rayat was not oppressed for interest. Sometimes he got the loan without any interest and frequently easy terms of payment were granted. In the year 1750-51, Ragho Govinda was desired to advance Rs. 1,500 as tagai loan to Kasba Mukhde, in Pargana Patode and he was told that the money was to be recovered in two years.³¹ No mention of interest is made in the letter. But in another document we find that while the current rate of interest was 75 per cent. the government reduced the interest to 25 p. c. on tagai advanced to the Rayats of Prant Rajpur.

A letter to Khandoji Mankar : You represented that about five or six hundred khandis of grain have been given as tagai during the present year as well as during the last year. An order has been issued to realise it with the usual compensation. The present rate of interest is fifty or seventy-five p. c. The Rayats cannot pay so much. You have, therefore, prayed that some remission may be granted for the welfare of the Rayats. Taking into consideration the welfare of the Rayats it is now settled that the five or six hundred khandis of grain given as

tagai should be fully realised with an interest of twenty five p c , before the month of Magh Not a seer should be permitted to remain unpaid ' ³⁵

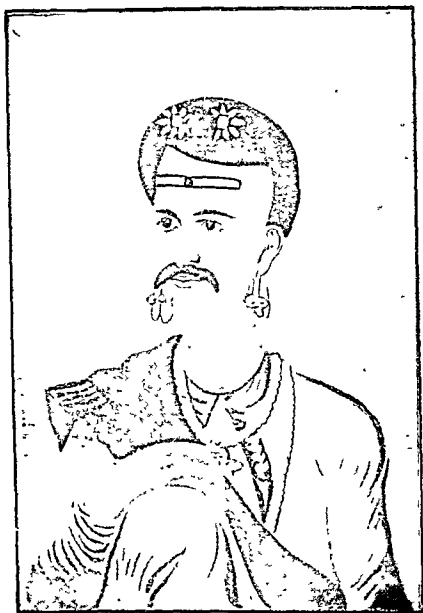
A third document directs an officer, Lakshman Hari, not to dun Ibhramji Nadkar, Khot of Kasba Govale of the same Tarf, for the repayment of tagai as the crops had failed that year (1743-44) ³⁶

The tagai was advanced in both cash and kind, and generally by the Kamavisdar or the Mamlatdar out of his own purse, and in case of his dismissal before the recovery of the tagai loan, it was repaid by his successor in office ³⁷ Thus we see that the Peshwas did almost everything necessary and possible for the improvements of cultivation Grants were made for irrigation works, special terms were offered for the reclamation of waste lands, tagai loan on reasonable interest and easy terms of payment was advanced to the Rayats to save them from the oppression of the money-lenders and finally to create interest in the permanent improvement of their land, kauls were granted for three to seven years and alienation by sale or mortgage was prohibited

³⁵ P D, Vol III, p -37

³⁶ P D, Vol III, p 236

³⁷ P D, Vol VI, p 240 'Therefore encourage the cultivation of the aforesaid Pargana by advancing Tagai If you are dismissed your money should be with interest paid by the next incumbent of the Mamlat



Nana Fadnavis

Mr. Ranade remarks, "The system of revenue management under Balaji Bajirao, Madhavrao and Nana Fadnavis was, on the whole, careful. New sources of revenue were developed, and the old improved. The land settlements made by the Peshwas during this period show that, while anxious not to oppress the rayats, every care was taken to insist on the rights of the government. Whenever the country needed that relief, leases varying from three to seven years were granted on the terms of Istawas, *i.e.*, gradually increasing assessments."³⁸

The result of this liberal policy was that Wellington during his first campaign in the Maratha country found it "highly cultivated" and Elphinstone recommended the continuation of the Maratha system after the conquest of the Peshwa's territories by the English. The land revenue system of the Peshwas will not suffer by comparison with that of contemporary Ireland. The Maratha peasant was certainly better off than his Irish brother and he had practically gained the fixity of tenure and a fair rent for which the Irish were vainly crying even in the first decade of the 19th century. The Maratha peasants had been relieved of forced labour by Peshwa Madhava Rao I, while the French were still labouring under similar disadvantages until the red flood of the Revolution

³⁸ Ranade, *The Miscellaneous Writings*, p. 358.

washed away all inequities. But theirs were not rights fought for and bought by blood. The gifts of a paternal despot could be taken away by another less benevolent, and the whole system was upset by that infamous prince Bajī Rao II "born of the weakness of Raghunath Rao and wickedness of Anandī Bai". He reintroduced the old Muhammadan system of revenue-farming abolished by Shivaji so long ago. Mahals and Mamlats were sold to the highest bidder and the Peshwa's favourites were induced to bid high. The result was that Districts changed hands every year, and Mamlatdars no longer felt any interest in the welfare of the Rayats. If the Patil refused to assist the revenue farmers collection was made without his agency. So even the excellent village system of Maharashtra failed to be a remedy against the misrule of a wicked man.

Before concluding this chapter we shall take a short notice of the Batai system here. As we have seen the Maratha peasant and the Maratha government preferred a fixed rent either in cash or in kind. Their collection was always flexible, as "large remissions were made, whenever the seasons were found to be unfavourable. Under the old revenue system, cultivated lands alone paid revenue, and in bad years the revenue fell, and remissions had to be constantly made in the State accounts".³⁹

The Batai arrangement was, therefore, made where the soil was very poor and the produce extremely variable. "Whenever the Batai or system of crop division obtained, the Government, after deducting for seeds and other necessary charges paid by the rayats, left $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ of the crop to the cultivator, and took the rest for the State. In Shivaji's time, the proportions are stated to have been $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$. The Batai system was not much in favor." ⁴⁰

⁴⁰ Ranade, *The Miscellaneous Writings*, p. 358.

CHAPTER VI

OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE

In addition to the rent the Maratha government levied other taxes. It will not be possible to discuss all of them in detail here and I shall simply quote a list of these various taxes from Elphinstone's Report. We shall have to remember that these taxes called *Sivay Jama* or extra revenue varied in different places, and all of them were never simultaneously levied.

1. *Extra Revenue :*

1. *Duhuk Puttee*—a tax of one year's rent in ten on the lands of the Daishmookh and the Daishpande.
2. *Huk Choutae*—a fourth of the fees levied every year.
3. *Mahr Mahillee*—a tax on the Inams of the Mahars.
4. *Meeras Puttee*—an additional tax once in three years on Meerasdars.
5. *Inam Tijae*—a payment by Inamdars of $\frac{1}{3}$ of the Government share of their lands annually.

6. *Inam Puttee*—an occasional tax imposed in times of exigency on the Inamdars.
7. *Pundee Gunna*—an additional levy equal to 12 p.c. on the Tunkha once in 12 years.
8. *Vihir Hoonda*—an extra tax on lands watered from wells.
9. *Ghur Puttee* or *Amber Saree*—a house tax levied from all but Brahmins and village officers.
10. *Bat Chappanee*—a fee on the annual examination of weights (this specially affected the retail traders but fell on others too) and measures.
11. *Tug*—a similar fee on examining the scale used for bulky articles.
12. *Luggun Tukka*—a tax on marriage.
13. *Pat-dam*—tax on widow re-marriage.
14. *Mhys Puttee*—a tax on she-buffaloes generally at the rate of one Rupee for a she-buffalo.
15. *Bakra Puttee*—a tax on sheep.
16. *Fudmash*—an occasional contribution in kind; often paid in commutation of service.

All these taxes were collected in the village by the Patil, although in the towns the government had a separate officer for that purpose. In addition to the levies enumerated above, the

government also derived some income from other sources, those worth mentioning being

- 1 *Beitul Maul*—or escheats
- 2 *Wan Charaee*—paid by cattle grazing on Government lands
- 3 *Ghaskuttanee*—or grass cut on Government lands
- 4 *Dewastan Dubhee*—derived from offerings to idols
- 5 *Khur Booswarree*—a tax on melon gardens on river beds
- 6 *Watan Zapti*—produce of lands belonging to Zemindars sequestrated by Government
- 7 *Succession Duty*—called *Nazar* If a son succeeded his father he was exempted from this tax, unless he was a Jagirdar or a Government servant And to these may also be added—
- 8 *Kotwalee* or town duty—which comprised besides the taxes included in the Sewai Juma a variety of other imposts, the most considerable of which was a tax of 17 p c on the sale of a house¹

2 *Census*

Sometimes, when the normal means of the government proved inadequate for meeting the financial pressure, the government levied a

¹ Fljlinstone's spelling is retained here. The list is not exhaustive. Many local taxes are not mentioned.

Fasti Patti or *Karja Patti* on all land-holders, Inamdars included, and the tax generally amounted to a year's income. Some of the above-mentioned levies were farmed and some of them were paid in kind. But as we have seen in relation to the assessment and collection of land revenue, the Peshwa's government relied much on inspection and what may be regarded as statistical reports. Thus we find that an officer was sent to take a census of the houses, and she-buffaloes, in Pargana Ghosala in the year 1741-42, and papers of the preceding year's census were given to him.²

"Ganesh Dattaji has been sent to ascertain the taxable houses and she-buffaloes (belonging to cow-herds) in the Pargana of Ghosala; give him the papers of the preceding year." The next year (1742-43) Karkuns were deputed for the same purpose to Tarfs Pal, Ashtami, Nagothane, Ghosala, Birwadi and Mamla Tale.³ It, therefore, seems that such statistical information was annually gathered (as Tarf Ghosala is mentioned also in the previous document).

3. *Exemption of Government Officers and Prabhus:*

But government officers were generally exempted from Ghar Patti (house-tax) and the

² P. D., Vol. III, p. 328.

³ P. D., Vol. III, p. 329.

Prabhus in the Konkan enjoyed similar exemption with the Brahmans.⁴

"Sanads to Kamavisdars : The Huzur has been informed that in the Konkan, house-tax is demanded from the Prabhus while it is not levied on the Brahmans. Don't levy that tax on the houses of the Prabhus in the Konkan Prant and you should return what you have already realised from them on that account." Consideration as usual was made for the poverty of the taxpayer in levying these extra taxes also. Thus we find that Moro Ganesh Behare of Satara was exempted from house-tax because the gentleman with his brother had been robbed twice and was, therefore, not in a position to pay (1776-77). "

"A letter to Krishna Rao Anant, Mukkam Satara : Moro Ganesh Behare is a resident of Satara. The Huzur is informed that you have dunned his family for house-tax due to the government. The year before last the aforesaid gentleman was robbed by dacoits beneath Morgiri and lost his property. After that, his brother at Vadutha was also robbed last year of all his goods and killed. Therefore he is under great difficulties. So we have taken pity on him and exempted him from this tax. Do not, therefore, dun his family." ⁵

The principle was that the levy should be *Jivan maphak* or in proportion to the resources of the tax-payer and these various taxes, although they look tremendous on paper, could not be very oppressive except in the hands of bad rulers like Baji Rao II. It is significant that although most of these taxes fell on lands, Mirasi lands always fetched as high a price as ten years' purchase. Some of these taxes however were not levied on the Rayats at all. Vancharai for instance was levied really to safeguard the interests of the peasants. The tax was imposed on the professional shepherds or *khilaris*, whose flocks were often let loose to graze freely in the fields and villages (mountainous regions where cultivation was difficult). To put a check on them these khilaris were required to take a license for their sheep and if the number ever exceeded that sanctioned in the license they had to pay a tax of Rs. 6 per hundred sheep. But the Rayats, whether Dhangar or Kunbi, was not to be taxed for the sheep that they might keep. This principle of levying Vancharai is clearly set forth in a letter written to Bapu Rao Yeshwant in 1767-68.

“A letter to Bapurao Yeshwant : You had been deputed to make an enquiry about the sheep of the khilaris, but complaint has reached us that you have levied Vancharai even upon the sheep of the Rayats.

Though there was no custom of levying that tax upon the Rayats, in the past you extorted Vancharai from them, and so they felt oppressed. It has, on this account, been settled that you should not exact it from the Rayats. Therefore make an enquiry about the sheep not belonging to the Rayats. Those who have got a license should be let alone, but those who graze their sheep along with the license holders give trouble to the Rayats. Therefore carefully find out the number of unlicensed sheep and levy Vancharai at the rate of Rs 6 per hundred. Deposit in the Sarkar what you can on account of Vancharai and take a receipt for it. But the Rayats, whether Dhangar or Kunbi, are not to be on any account troubled for the sheep that they may keep.⁶ In fact these khilariis with their flocks had become such a nuisance to the farm lands as well as to the wood lands that in 1770-71, the government was compelled to take the drastic measure of confiscating the licensed as well as the unlicensed flocks grazing in Prant Shirval. The licensed flocks, of course, were restored to their owners shortly afterwards.⁷

4 *Forests.*

Now to pass on to the preservation of government forests for they were a source of income

⁶ P D, Vol VII, p 103

⁷ P D, Vol VII, p 105

to the Peshwas. Forests, do not seem to have yielded much in cash. We find that a man paid Rs. 154-10 for a farm of the bherali palms in Pargana Ghosala for one year (1743-44)⁸ and of course the Peshwas got something by selling their permission for cutting wood both for building purposes and for fuel; the usual fee for fuel was As. 4 per bullock load. The honey from the bee-hives, whatever it might have yielded, formed another item of the forest revenue. But it seems that the *kurans* were also included in the forest department. The Peshwas preserved the forests and kurans more for their direct produce than for any revenue as will be seen in the document below :

“Balaji Krishna was appointed to the Mamlat of the Kurans and the following instructions were issued to him.

1. He should deliver to Government in Poona fifteen lakhs of bundles of grass, and should keep a similar quantity ready for Government use in Kurans within a radius of five or six Kos from the city. (This last quantity should be given to the stables and camel stables, on presenting a letter from the Peshwa's officers.)

2. He should take in his charge all the Kurans existing within a radius of fifteen to twenty Kos of Poona, whether belonging to

Government or to private individuals, and there, establish Government Kurans

3 He should deliver to Government in Poona 1,600 khandis of fuel and 150 khandis of coal

4 Out of the timber fuel, grass, bamboos, leaves and other produce realised in a private Kuran, a quantity sufficient to meet his annual wants should be given to the owner. The rest should belong to the Government and should be sold, excepting such portion as may be required for Government purposes and the proceeds credited to the Government

5 A duty of As 4 per bullock load, or if possible more should be levied from all traders carrying wood on bullocks, and Vancharai should be levied on all cow-herds grazing their flock in the Kuran and the proceeds should be credited to the Government "9

The Peshwas sometimes allowed government officers to take timber free for constructing their houses. Sometimes building materials were given to villagers in distress and in need of public help

"The houses of the Kunbis of Mauja Talawade belonging to Moro Babu Rao having been burnt, Keso Krishna is ordered to give them 750 bamboos from the Kuran of Mauja Chas in

Tarf Chakan.”¹⁰ For works of public utility building materials could be freely obtained from government forests with the sanction of the Peshwa, very easily obtainable on such occasions.

5. *Mints :*

A third source of revenue was the mint. The mints during the Peshwa period were, unlike those of our own days, in private hands. “The Hindu financier,” says Mr. Ranade, “whose opinions were so prominently referred to in one of the articles on Indian affairs published in a recent issue of the *London Times*, reflected the views of his countrymen faithfully enough when he observed that ‘No Government has the right to close its mints, or to say that the currency of the country was either deficient or redundant. That was a question solely for the bankers, traders and merchants to consider. If they do not require money they will not purchase bullion to be coined. The duty of Government is merely to assay all bullion brought to the mints for coinage and to return the value of the Bullion in money.’”¹¹ Shivaji also advocated the same policy in his reply to the prayer of the English that

¹⁰ P. D., Vol. VI, p. 255.

¹¹ The Miscellaneous Writings, p. 330.

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⁹ K B Marathe's Summary, P. D., Vol VI, p 256.

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¹⁰ P. D., Vol. VI, p. 255.

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their "money should go current in his dominions "

Its natural consequence was that no less than twenty-six different sorts of gold coins of different value were current in Shivaji's time, and "in an official table published for the guidance of the Civil Courts in the Bombay Presidency, the names of no less than thirty-eight gold coins and over one hundred and twenty-seven silver coins are mentioned as still so far current in different parts of this Presidency as to make it worth while to give the relative intrinsic values of these local currencies in exchange for the Queen's coin ' ¹²

The inevitable corollary of this system was private minting, not free but licensed. For this license, the Sonar (the owner of private mints was usually a Sonar or Goldsmith) had to pay some royalty to the government which varied in different cases. But the license holder had to stipulate for keeping up the standard proportion in the alloy and the purity of the metal used for coining purposes. A breach of this contract meant fine or forfeiture of the license. Even a random quotation of a document bearing on mints will illustrate the principle well.

"Balaji Bapuji is permitted to establish a mint at Kasba Nagothane and coin pice ten

¹² Ranade, *The Miscellaneous Writings* p. 331

Masas in weight. If pice of the prescribed weight is coined it will be all right; but if the pice is made of a less weight, he will be fined." The permission was given for three years and for the license Balaji Bapu had to pay Rs. 50 for the first year (in four instalment of Rs. 12-8 each), Rs. 75 for the second year (four instalments), and Rs. 100 for the third year (four instalments).¹³ Mr. Ranade points out that the document quoted above furnishes the first notice of such licensed private mints in the Peshwas' Daftar, and both Shahu and the Raja of Kolhapur had their own mints.

Though the Peshwas granted license for private mints they were by no means ready to tolerate unlicensed mints or debased coins. But in some provinces the Zamindars established their own mints and issued counterfeit coins. The most notorious in this respect was Subha Dharwar, and it was not very easy to put a stop to this corrupt practice, so profitable to the offenders. The first notice of counterfeit coins we find in a document of Balaji Baji Rao dated 1760-61.¹⁴ It states:

"In Subha Dharwar the mints for coining Hons, Mohars, and Rupees issue false coins. In the old mints good coins were struck. Recently the Zamindars have established mints almost

¹³ P. D., Vol. II, p. 157.

¹⁴ P. D., Vol. II, p. 164.

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¹³ P. D., Vol. II, p. 157.

¹⁴ P. D., Vol. II, p. 164.

at every house and are issuing bad coins." The remedy proposed was to abolish these spurious mints and to establish one central mint for which a license was granted to Pandurang Murar.

"It causes loss to the government. You represented that all these mints should be abolished and in their place one central mint should be established at Dharwar. Bad coins should be discontinued and good coins issued. Such a measure will be profitable to the government. Therefore agreeing with your view that the continuation of the issue of bad coins is not desirable and should be discontinued, the management has been entrusted to you. You should pull down the mints established in different places and establish a central mint at Dharwar. You should also destroy the bad coins and issue good ones." The mint charges was fixed at seven per thousand (six coins for the government and one for the manager). "The customary charge from former time is one Mohar for each thousand Mohars and one Rupee per thousand. The work of the mint should be profitable, therefore the Sawkars have been exempted from this charge for one year from Rabilakhar, San Ihide, to Rabilakhar, San Issanne Sitain. After this you should take the customary due of six per thousand coins and remit the same to the government. In addition to this, take one coin more

with the free consent of the Sawdars in your own name, and remit that also to the government. Your dues will be afterwards fixed according to your service." But this reform could not be carried out till 1765-66 when the first Madhava Rao had to issue a circular letter to the Kamavisdar, Zamindars and Sawkars telling them that no payment should henceforth be accepted by the government except in new coins. We have many other instances of suppression of spurious mints and counterfeit coins.¹⁵ But the government confined itself to supervision only, and the actual control of the currency was never undertaken. The currency was further strengthened by an extensive use of *hundis* or credit instruments. The Peshwas always instructed their revenue officers to make use of hundis in the transmission of money to the central treasury. How popular the use of hundi had become is seen in a letter written by one Ganesh Bhat, where he says that he has remitted Rs. 13-8 by hundi.¹⁶

6. *Customs Duties :*

We may now turn to the Peshwas' income from customs duties and other taxes levied on traders. These duties fell under two classes,

¹⁵ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 291-297.

¹⁶ Rajwade, M. I. S., Vol. X, p. 21.

Mohatarfa or duties on traders, and Zakat which included duties on sales and purchases as well as octroi duties. A chart of the rates of Mohatarfa during the administration of Balaji Baji Rao Peshwa can be framed from four documents, a letter to the Kamavisdar of Mamla Revdanda written in 1742-43,¹⁷ a letter to Nathuram Chaudhari dated the same year,¹⁸ a Sanad to the officer in charge of Janjira Revdanda (1750-51)¹⁹ and a Sanad to Shridhar Jivaji issued in 1752-53.²⁰ The Kamavisdar of Mamla Revdanda was asked to levy Mohatarfa at the following rate :

7. *Mohatarfa* .

1. The Kolis should be taxed at the rate of Rs. 8, 5 and 2 per palanquin (per year) according to its size and nature.

2. Shop-keepers should be taxed at the rate of Rs. 5, 6 and 7 per shop per year.

3. The blacksmiths should be taxed at the rate of Rs. 4 per shop per year.

4. The shoe-makers should be taxed at the rate of Rs. 4, 5 and 6 per shop per year.

5. The rate of tax on oilmen should be Rs. 5, 6 and 7 per oil mill per annum.

¹⁷ P. D., Vol. II, pp. 299-301.

¹⁸ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 301-302.

¹⁹ P. D., Vol. III, p. 303.

²⁰ P. D., Vol. III, p. 304.

6. The rate of tax on goldsmiths should be Rs. 3 per shop per annum.

7. The rate of tax on potters should be Rs. 3 per wheel per annum.

8. The rate of tax on basket-makers should be Rs. 3 per house per annum.

9. The Gondhlis (worshippers of Devi or goddess of small-pox) to pay for their profession Rs. 3 per year.

10. The tax on boats passing the channel should be four annas for each small boat (fit to carry a load of five khandis) and eight annas for each big vessel.

Nathuram Chaudhari was informed that he should collect Mohatarfa from beldars (stone-quarry-men) at the rate of 5 per cent. of their income. Similarly Moroji Shinde, officer in charge of Revdanda, was told to levy Mohatarfa from masons, stone-cutters, and stone-diggers, at the rate of one day's income per month, and Shridhar Jivaji was informed that the current rate of Mohatarfa to be paid by the carriers was Rs. 1-4 for every bullock carrying cloth and grocery. The Zakat included the Thalbharit (tax to be paid at the place of loading), the Thalmod (tax to be paid at the place of sale) also Chhapa, a stamping-duty and Hashil which again in one document at least is described to be consisting of three items—Tafavat Dhakhala, Dasturi and Talab Dhakhala. In another document a

tax called Shingshingoti (levied on cattle) is also included in the Zakat

8 *Zakat*

The Mohatarfa, as the above list will show, varied with the means of each individual shop-keeper, and can, therefore, be regarded as an income-tax. The Zakat was levied separately in every district, and this naturally led goods to be stopped frequently in their transit. This, however, was not peculiar to Maharashtra or to India. Tradesmen and merchants were similarly troubled in pre revolutionary France, and, in Germany before the Zollverein. The Maratha merchants could evade the difficulty. "To remedy this inconvenience, there was a class called Hoondeekurrees in towns, who undertook for a single payment to pass articles through the whole country. These men arranged with the farmers of the customs, and were answerable to them for the sums due."¹ The Peshwa was not unaware of the inconvenience of frequent stoppage of merchandise in course of transit. In 1745-46, Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao ordered that goods passing between Sironj and Burhanpur should pay octroi (Zakat) at one place only.²

¹ Elphinstone's Report on the Territories Conquered from the Peshwa, p. 30

² I. D. Vol III, p. 31.

“A letter to Sankaraji Nikam: Zakat on elephants, and horses carrying goods of different descriptions from Sironj to Burhanpur should be collected at Sironj. Nothing should be charged at Burhanpur. If there is any custom of taking something as ‘pansupari’ gift, that alone should be taken. This practice has been observed from early times. When things of various descriptions are sent from Burhanpur, Zakat should be levied there and not at Sironj. This being the practice, we have been informed that you have demanded Hashil at Burhanpur although it was duly paid at Sironj. This letter is written on this information. You should collect only according to the customary practice, and should not introduce any innovation.”

9. *Zamindars and Darakh-dars :*

It may be noted here that Zakat was generally farmed to a person for a fixed sum, but these men were strictly warned not to oppress the people or to levy any unauthorised tax. As in the administration of land revenue the Peshwas followed the policy of encouraging the merchants and securing their prosperity and as the farming system was bound to be more or less inefficient from that point of view, we find that government officers were appointed during the administration of the second Madhava Rao for assessment and collection of Zakat. These officers often replaced

the farmers altogether, but sometimes they simply supervised their work. The collection of Zakat, when under a government department, was conducted according to the Kamavis system and to it also the same checks of Zamindars and Darakh-dars were applied. Two documents will be quoted here to illustrate the working of the principle. The first of these recounts the duties of the Zakat-Fadnis, of Bandar Pen, as follows :

1. The settlement of the fixed sum to be levied from any trader on account of octroi, should not be made without the consent of the Fadnis

2. The accounts of octroi on exported goods should remain with the Fadnis.

3. All correspondence regarding octroi should be conducted and all orders regarding credit and debit should be issued by the Fadnis

4. The octroi farms being abolished and the revenue being departmentally managed, writing work should be done by the Fadnis.

5. The Fadnis should be prompt in his work and should issue notes or passes without delay.²³

The second document illustrates how the Zakat officers were also checked by Zamindars and hereditary officers or Darakh-dars. Krishnaji Viththal, Jamenis of octroi, in Prant Kalyan, had some difference with the Zamindars about official

²³ P. D., Vol VI, pp. 293-94. K. B. Marathe's summary.

duties. The following instructions were therefore issued to Uddho Dadaji and Apaji Vishwanath, Joint Kamavisdars of Zakat in the Prant :

1. " The Jamenis shall ascertain the amount of octroi to be levied, under orders of the Mamlatdar and in the presence of the Zamindars and shall prepare rough memorandum thereof on the spot, another memorandum being prepared by the Zamindar.

2. The Jamenis shall write the draft agreement setting forth the conditions on which a sub-contract of the octroi farm is given. The Majumdar shall enter the totals and when the agreement is approved by the Mamlatdar, the Fadnis shall write the *sanad*.

3. Passports to traders carrying bullock-loads from forts shall be written either by the Zamindars or by the Darakhdars, as may be customary at the particular post. In the former case the Fadnis shall date the passports, the Majumdar shall make his mark thereon, and the Mamlatdar shall seal them. In the latter case the passports shall be sent through the Zamindars.

4. At the end of the year the Jamenis shall compare his rough memoranda of receipts with those kept by the Zamindars and submit a detailed account to the Mamlatdar.

5. The Zamindars represent that the amount to be levied from the traders is fixed by them according to custom or according to

Kauls granted to them, and that in their absence, the work is performed by the Mamlatdars. As the Zemindars keep separate accounts of the tax, the rates should be fixed with their cognizance. The memorandum fixing the amount leviable, either for particular Mahal, or for the whole tract, from the post to the province, above the ghaut should be written by the Jamenis and marked by the Mazumdar, and it should bear the approving endorsement of the Mamlatdar. It should then be given to the Fadnis for being registered and finally recorded by the Mamlatdar. The copy to be sent to the *Thana* should be made by the Jamenis. The Zamindar should take a copy for reference.

6. Kauls to traders shall be written by the Jamenis; the Fadnis shall date them, and they shall bear the Zamindar's mark and the Mamlatdar's seal."²⁴

10. Remission of Zakat and Mohatarfa :

In the above document mention has been made of kauls to traders. This will naturally remind us of the Kauls granted to cultivators for improvement of cultivation and other measures adopted for the same purpose. As land revenue was remitted from time to time in

²⁴ P. D., Vol. VI, pp. 294-296. K. B. Marathe's translation.

consideration of poverty of the Rayats, failure of rain, and above all, for the general and all-embracing reason of the improvement of agriculture, so these Zakat and Mohatarfa taxes were also, from time to time remitted. The Peshwa's government never meant to make their assessment and collection rigid; flexibility was preferred as it suited the circumstances well. In the year 1763-64, a greater supply of ghi, oil, joggerly and turmeric being considered necessary the Kamavisdars in charge of Zakat, in Prants Poona and Junnar, were ordered to levy Zakat at half the usual rate.²⁵

"A Sanad to Mahadaji Narayan and Sada-shiva Raghunath Kamavisdars, Zakat, Prants Poona and Junnar: levy Zakat at half the usual rate upon the traders from Desh who would bring ghi, oil, joggerly and turmeric, etc., till the festival of Dasra and excuse the other half, as it is necessary to import a greater quantity of these articles." Similarly the levy of *Tag* (a tax on balance—it came under the Mohatarfa) newly imposed on traders at Poona was abolished in 1769-70 on their representation as it pressed heavily on them.²⁶ The Peshwa's attention was not confined to the sellers alone, the consumers as the party most affected by trade regulations also shared his consideration.

²⁵ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 69.

²⁶ P. D., Vol. VI, p. 281.

Thus in a letter addressed to the Kamavisdars of Zakat, Prants Poona and Junnar 1763-64, we find that (1) "rice and salt and groceries brought from the Konkan were to pass free of Zakat. (2) Bhusara grains (pulses) were always exempted from Zakat. (3) Cultivators carrying grain and salt from Poona were to be exempted from Zakat as their property had been recently lost owing to war. (4) No fee was to be levied on cultivators purchasing bullocks and buffaloes in Prant Poona as they had been deprived of their cattle during the disturbance this year; traders, however, should pay the usual duty." ²⁷

II. *Communication :*

In times of famine and scarcity, the favourite remedy of English statesmen during the first four decades of the 19th century had been a sliding scale of tariff, intended to secure agricultural interest, and at the same time to procure relief to the distressed. The Maratha government on such occasions boldly met the difficulty by the total suspension of Zakat and temporary introduction of free import of foodstuff and agricultural necessities. But the means of communication in those days were not so advanced, and in spite of these wise measures

famine had often terrible consequences. Means of communication, such as ferry-boats and roads, were not neglected by the Peshwa's government. The government sometimes granted money for the construction of ferry-boats, and the roads were in general good, particularly in the neighbourhood of big cities. The Duke of Wellington, then Sir Arthur Wellesley, remarks in his despatches "The roads are excellent except when the rain is heavy." Among the papers of the second Madhava Rao, we find a letter to Balaji Mahadev, Mamlatdar of Taluka Shivner, (1783-84), ordering him to repair the road through the pass of Malje in Tarf Shivner, one-fourth of the total expense was to be paid from the land revenue of the district and the remaining three-fourths were to be raised by the Kamavisdars of Zakat. The same road was for a second time repaired nine years later. The contribution to the major portion of the expenses by the Kamavisdars of Zakat shows that these roads were mainly meant for trade purposes.²⁸

12. *Foundation of New Market-towns:*

We have casually noticed the kauls granted to traders. The cultivators, we have seen, got a kaul for bringing waste land into cultivation and for the improvement of agriculture in

general, and kauls were granted to merchants for repopulation of old and deserted market-towns, for foundation of new market places and for the improvement of trade and commerce in general. A kaul was granted to the Shete Mahajan, shop-keepers and traders, and persons following other occupations of Kasba Mukhde in Pargana Patode, of Sarkar Sangamner in the Subha of Khujiste Buniad in 1750-51, because business in the old market of the aforesaid village was not thriving well owing to some disturbance. The kaul was granted not only for the improvement of the trade and for the benefit of the tradesmen, but also because it was to the profit of the government as well. By this kaul old residents of the place were to be exempted from export and import duties for three years, and to be subjected only to the payment of house-tax (levied according to the profession of the house-owner); and new-comers were to be exempted from export and import duties for five years, and from house tax for three years.²⁹

Similarly, when a new *peth* or suburb was established at Kasba Barshi in 1777-78, a kaul was granted to traders exempting them from all taxes for seven years.³⁰ In the year 1776-77 Chabildas Gulabdas of Burhanpur

²⁹ P. D., Vol. II, pp. 134-135.

³⁰ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 223.

was exempted from half the usual Hashil for opening a new shop of cloth and embroidery³¹; and in the year 1789-90 two merchants, Pomaji Naik and Govind Naik Bhake, got a refund of money illegally exacted from them by a Mamledar of Zakat on bhusara grains, specially because their supply proved a great source of relief in time of a famine at Poona.³²

It is to be noted here that special inducements were offered to new traders to come and settle in the Peshwa's territories. Vithoji Krishna Kamat, a Shenvi merchant, having offered to come with five ships and settle at Bassein as a trader, Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao ordered a palanquin and clothes of honour to be given to him in addition to partial exemption from Zakat.³³ Sometimes when tradesmen were pressed hard for money by their creditors, the government interfered in their favour and induced the money lenders to accept easy terms of payments.

13. *Shete Mahajan* :

Generally the task of establishing a new suburb or market town was entrusted to an enterprising man, who was rewarded on the successful conclusion of his labours with a watan of *Shetepan*. The perquisites of this watan were

³¹ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 225.

³² P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 225..

³³ P. D., Vol. II, p. 139.

quite analogous to those of the village officers, and in this case too the Peshwa got important services without any payment whatever from the government treasury. The shop-keepers and traders, who actually paid the Shete's remuneration, had no reason for grumbling, as he was, like the Patil, the natural guardian of his clients' interests. The perquisites of the Shete watan were as follows :

1. One betel-nut on every weekly market day from each Bania's shop.

2. Five betel leaves every day from each shop of the leaves sellers.

3. Nine *taks* ($\frac{1}{3}$ seer) of oil every week from every oilman's shop.

4. Half a seer of gram for each bag of grain sold in the market.

5. Quarter seer of groceries for every bag of grocery sold.

6. A handful of vegetables from every vegetable shop.

7. One *pasodi* (a kind of rough cloth) a year from the weaver community in the suburb.

8. Two pairs of shoes from the shoe-maker community in the suburb.

9. Quarter seer of wheat or rice from every shop on such festivals as Dasra, Diwali, Shimga and Varsha Pratipada.

10. A handful of grain for every bag of corn measured by the measure of the Shetes.

11. Flesh and dried fish to be taken when offered for sale in the market by butchers and fish-sellers.

12. A piece of cocoanut at every marriage celebrated in the suburb.

13. The houses of the Shetes to be exempted from house-tax.³⁴

14. *Government Intervention:*

The Peshwa's government interfered actively in commerce and manufacturing industries. Merchantmen required a *dastak* or passport for coming to or leaving a port in the Peshwa's territories.³⁵

The Peshwas were perfectly justified in regulating the weights and measures, as otherwise retail dealers could cheat their customers with impunity. But the same thing cannot be said of Chhapa, or stamping of cloth for which also a fee was charged. The stamping duty on cloth was 5 p.c. *ad valorem* on imported cloth, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ p.c. on cloth locally manufactured, and sellers of unstamped cloth were ordered to be fined.³⁶

Government interference did not stop here; the manufacturers of turbans were, actually

³⁴ For another paper recounting similar perquisites see P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 284-285.

³⁵ See letter to Ananda Rao Dhulap. Peshwas' Diary, Sawai Madhava Rao, Vol. III, pp. 226-227.

³⁶ P. D., Vol. III., pp. 320-21.

told, what metal they should melt for the manufacture of the brocade and what should be the length of the turbans ³⁷

“Instructions about the manufacture of brocade for *sangas* at Kasba Jalnapur in the Pargana of the same name

1 At present brocades are made by melting Chandvad Rupees Their quality is therefore bad Formerly Malharshai English, Surati or Patani coins were melted for making brocades The same practice should be renewed

2 “*Khar* made by burning plantain trees is now used in preparing silk brocades therefore become blackish Manufacturers should be warned and made to use *datyakhar* (Khar-salt)

3 *Pagotas* are now made of a length of twelve to fifteen cubits, this is not proper Their length should not be less than thirty cubits Manufacturers should be warned, and asked to make pagotas of a length of thirty cubits ’

15 Monopoly

Monopoly was also given for purchase and sale of cocoanut, ghi, and even for brokery in some cases Sometimes the government went to the extent of fixing a price for certain articles

We should however judge the Peshwas by their motives. The principle of Laissez Faire had not gained any recognition in Europe in those days, and even in England, the future birthplace of free trade, protective duties and bounties were in fashion; and what was the sliding scale of duties on corn but an attempt to fix a minimum price for agricultural produces of the land? The Peshwas also did the same thing, and, on the whole, their subjects were not badly off.

16. Ship-building encouraged:

We have seen how owners of new shops and importers of cheap grains were partially exempted from Hashil. An over-sea trade had grown up. The Peshwas encouraged building of ships or gallibats."

"Chimnaji Ganesh Sathe of Kaliye in Tarf Majgaum in Taluka Ratnagiri having built a new ship was exempted from Octroi and other taxes on goods brought in the ship from other ports to his village for household use. His ship was also exempted from liability to forced service." (Marathe's Translation)³⁸. And we find Maratha merchants settling in coast towns of Arabia, and Maratha merchantmen visiting Chinese waters. (One Narottam Joshi is described as

³⁸ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 226.

a resident of Muscat, in a letter to Admiral Anand Rao Dhulap)³⁹

In a document published by Mr V K Rajwade in the 10th volume of his "Sources of Maratha History," one Asaram Vinayak is spoken of in the following terms "He is a merchant of high position His ships go to China He has considerable trade with the English"⁴⁰

We may note here that the Maratha naval officers could not claim salvage money from a subject of the Maratha empire for recovering ships from pirates

"A merchantman with a cargo on board on its way to Bassein was taken by pirates From them it was recovered by men serving in the navy under you and you also came to know that the ship belonged to the merchants * * Therefore enquire whether the ship belongs to the merchants and Krishnaji Raghunath If it belongs to them, restore to them the cargo that you may have found and the gallibat, and get from them an acknowledgment of receipt" It is to be noted that no salvage money is mentioned in any part of the document, such an item was not likely to be omitted by a Maratha officer, because even *antast* or bribe is mentioned in state papers⁴¹

³⁹ P D, Vol VIII p 226

⁴⁰ Rajwade, M I S, Vol X, p 263 ⁴¹ P D, Vol II, pp 141 142

wine (1754-55), but they were strictly ordered not to sell or to give wine to Brahmans, Prabhus, Shenvis and government servants⁴⁴

For the convenience of the European soldiers in the Peshwa's service, the second Madhava Rao allowed them to distil liquor for their own use

"Some Portuguese and Christians are employed under Syed Ahmad Gardi, who is serving under Ragho Vishwanath. They always require liquor. Let them therefore establish a distillery and manufacture wine for their own consumption. Do not present any obstruction to it."⁴⁵

18 Government Servants exempted from Zakat :

We may take here a passing notice of the exemption from Zakat enjoyed by government servants. "The Konkanastha Brahmin Karkoons," says Ranade, "who had monopoly of all the Secretariat or Daftar offices, and received respectable salaries, obtained the privilege of having their goods exempted from Custom duties and ferry charges when they imported grain and other goods from outside ports and places."⁴⁶ In justice to the Peshwa, it ought to be pointed out that the Brahman Karkuns enjoyed

⁴⁴ P. D., Vol III, p 332

⁴⁵ P. D. Vol, VI, p 300

⁴⁶ The Miscellaneous Writings, p 351

these privileges, not as Brahmans, but as government officers. Government officers, other than Brahmans, also shared these advantages. In 1744-45, Babaji Chapaji Shenvi, the farmer of Zakat in Prant Sasti (Salsette) was informed that :

1. "Fish purchased by government servants for their own consumption should be exempt from duty.

2. That the following articles when purchased by government officers to the amount mentioned below, should also be exempt—twenty-five plantains, five cocoanuts, gur, dates, dried dates and sugar, to the amount of five seers.

3. That government servants and Brahmans should be exempt from ferry charges." ⁴⁷

On the whole the revenue administration of the Peshwa was conducted on sound principles, well calculated to secure the wealth and welfare of the Rayats. But the weak point of the system was not the dishonesty of Maratha officers which could be checked, but the absolutism of the Peshwa which found its worst exponent in Baji Rao Raghunath. The system worked so well under Balaji Baji Rao and his son that it could be favourably compared with the revenue system then prevalent in European countries. Its great advantage was that assessment and

⁴⁷ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 308-310.

collection were flexible and could be regulated according to the actual condition of each individual district.

19 Total Revenue

We do not know what was the total revenue of the Peshwa's government Lord Valentia estimates it at Rs 7,164,724.⁴⁸ But we do not know how far this figure is reliable, and upon what data it is based Mr J Grant estimated the total revenue of the Maratha Empire at six crores towards the close of the 18th century. According to him the Peshwa's revenue "reckoning chout from the Nizam, Tippoo, and Bundelcund Rajputs, will be found to amount to at least three crores of rupees"⁴⁹ Mr Elphinstone's estimate is more moderate According to him the total revenue of the Peshwa's dominions, excluding Ahmedabad and the lands resumed from Bastin, amounted in December, 1815, to Rs 9,671,735. He arrived at this figure after a detailed examination of the Peshwa's revenue⁵⁰ and he has supplied figures for every province and every district. These figures were compiled by him for the information of the Governor-General and his Council. And as he suggested in his covering letter these

⁴⁸ Scott Waring Hist. of the Marathas.

⁴⁹ J Grant, An Historical and Political View of the Deccan, London, 1798, pp. 23 24 and 26

⁵⁰ Unpublished papers in the Imperial Records Office, Calcutta, Secret papers, Nos 42 & 43, 1816

would be useful should occasion for territorial exchange ever arise. As Elphinstone was at Poona at the time and in close touch with the Peshwa's government we may accept his estimate as fairly accurate. He had no reason to give his superiors an exaggerated figure and in his estimate the Chauth naturally found no place. According to Lt.-Colonel Blacker, the Peshwa's "clear Revenue was two crores and ten lacs of rupees annually."²¹

²¹ Blacker, *Memoirs of the Operations of the British Army in India*, p. 27.

APPENDIX E

Elphinstone's Estimate to the Peshawa's Revenue.

Poona, December, 1815.

SIR,

I have the honor to enclose the Details of the Paishwas Revenue, of which I transmitted an Abstract, in my Despatch to His Excellency the Governor-General I did not forward these Papers at that Time as they are of no General Interest, I send them now because occasions may arise (such as exchanges &c.) when it would be convenient to refer to them and it is therefore desirable to have them on Record. In the same view I enclose a statement of the lands assigned to Holcar. The date is old and the amount of the Revenue must have altered since then. Holcar may also have much acquisitions in the Interval that has past but this Document contains the possessions of his Family seventeen

years ago and the changes in that Period may be ascertained by a Reference to recent Transactions.

I have the honor to be

SIR,

Your most obedient humble servant,

M, ELPHINSTONE.

To

J. ADAM, ESQ.,
&c. &c. &c.

Abstract of the Paishwah's Revenue.

Praunt Kokun	25,68,594
Praunt Carnatic including Beejapoor			19,52,183
Praunt Candeish including Bauglana and Berar	10,05,344
Praunt Poona, Joonair, Nuggur & Painair	7,28,118
Praunt Gungterree	5,65,769
Praunt Wye Sattara	2,99,142
Praunt Swadeish, Ballaghaut		...	4,66,023
Praunt Gazerat	9,76,362
Praunt Serole	0,03,866
Country North of tho Nurbudda		...	0,17,843
Mawul	1,63,927

Praunt Kurhar	7,34,322
Batta of 8 P. Ct. upon the Khasgee			1,90,240
			<hr/>
	Total	...	96,71,735
			<hr/>

To the above is to be added the revenues of Ahmedabad and of the Lands resumed from Bastin.

CHAPTER VII

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

1. *Primitive Simplicity of the Maratha System :*

✓ The system of administration of justice was simple and suited to the temper of the time. Codified law there was none and procedure was uncertain and informal. For one, the judiciary depended upon the old Sanskrit treatises on law like Mitakshara and Manu's Code, for the other, they had to depend upon old customs. And as those old customs prescribed, among other forms, trial by ordeal, the Maratha judges allowed ordeal by fire and water as well as appeal to divine intervention in the form of an oath taken in a sacred temple. But the Chhatrapati Maharajas and the Peshwas after them acted more like the patriarchs of old than modern judges. What law there was, was not strictly enforced in civil suits. Legal exactitude was not their ideal. ✕ Amicable settlement was encouraged, and an attempt was always made to give a suitor every facility for proving his case. Sometimes consideration was made for a defeated party, to ensure good feeling between the parties in future. Thus in the suit of Maloji bin

Shahaji Bhanga *vs.* Hiroji bin Narsoji Bhanga about the proprietary right of a Patilki watan although the latter had failed to substantiate his claim, the *Panch* directed Maloji to give Hiroji a site to build a house on and 30 bighas of land,

"A piece of land about 30 cubits in length and about 15 cubits in breadth in the inhabited portion of the aforesaid village and the Patilki right of 30 bighas of the superior, ordinary and inferior classes out of the cultivable land of the village have been given to Hiroji, son of Narsoji Bhanga by the assembled *got*." ¹ (*Got*—castemen).

2. *Pratap Sinha's Yadi*:

²The old customs about procedure were compiled and arranged in a *yadi* by Pratap Sinha Maharaj, Chhatrapati of Satara. Pratap Sinha reigned from 1808-1839 A.D. and the fall of the Peshwas took place in the year 1818. His reign, therefore, coincided with the early period of English administration in the Bombay Presidency. But the rules and regulations drawn up by him in his *yadi* were based upon the old customs of the land, and give us a clear idea of the policy by which the old Maratha rulers were guided in the administration of justice.

²Says Chhatrapati Pratap Sinha in the *Nyaya*-

¹ P. D., Vol. I, pp. 170-181.

dhishh Prakaran of his yadi—"The good old rule of this realm has been to make amicable settlement of all disputes through the proper exertion of the neighbours and to call a *Panchayet* only when there is no other remedy."² He goes on to say that this excellent custom should be encouraged and the Patils, Mamledars and Shete Mahajans (in towns and market places) should try to induce the parties, if they came to them, to settle their dispute by arbitration. Even serious quarrels, beyond the jurisdiction of Patils and Shete Mahajans and Panchayets appointed by them, says the Raja, it would be well if settled through the arbitration of neighbours.³ Intent on the welfare of his subjects, and perhaps impelled by the good old custom, the Raja says that in case of settlement by arbitration the parties would be exempted from the payment of *Harki*, which they would have to pay, if the case was referred to Royal Courts or Royal officers. In case the parties failed to settle their disputes amicably, they should go to an arbitrator and the Raja assures us that such an arbitrator need not fear Royal displeasure for his laudable efforts.⁴

² B. I. S. M., Tiritiya Sammelan Vritta, pp. 51-52.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ The original document has been published in the Tiritiya Sammelan Vritta of the Bharat Itihas Shanhodhak Mandal by Mr. Bhaskar Vaman Bhat.

3. *The Separation of the Executive and the Judiciary unknown :*

When such efforts for amicable settlement or settlement by arbitration failed, the parties had recourse to the regular instruments of justice. The judicial officer in the village was the Patil as usual, above him the Mamlatdar and the Sarsubhedar and above all the Peshwa or his minister as the representative of the theoretical head of the state, the Raja of Satara, who was like the King of England, the fountain of justice and honour. ✓In towns, learned judges, well-versed in the Shastras, were appointed for judicial duties and were called Nyayadhis. Thus we see the Maratha statesmen were not acquainted with the theory of the separation of the Executive, the Legislative, and the Judiciary. The Peshwa and his minister, the Sarsubhedar the Mamlatdar and the Patil in the village exercised all these widely different functions. The Nyayadhis was a Judiciary pure and simple,✓

4. *Panchayet :*

✓The great instrument of administration of civil justice was the Panchayet. Pratap Sinha Maharaja says that for cases of minor importance the Patil in the village and the Shete Mahajan in the towns and market-places could appoint

Panchayets. The parties on such occasions had to sign a *Rajinama* or agreement to abide by the decision, and the Panchayet was then to proceed with its enquiry, draw up a *saransh* or summary of the case and pass its judgment. The judgment had to be confirmed by the Mamlatdar. But if it was discovered that the Panchayet was corrupt or prejudiced against a party, the case was to be reported to the Mamlatdar, and if the Mamlatdar after proper enquiry found the Patil's report correct, the case was to be sent to the Sarkar. If the Patil refused to appoint a Panchayet or to dispose of the case in a legal manner, or if the parties rejected a Panchayet of their own village, the case was to be referred to the Mamlatdar ; it would then be the Mamlatdar's duty to appoint a Panchayet with the Patil's cognizance or to assemble a Panchayet at a place other than the village of the disputants. In serious cases beyond the jurisdiction of the Patil or officers of his rank, the Mamlatdar was to appoint in the first instance an arbitrator with the consent of the parties. Failing this measure a Panchayet in the usual manner had to be appointed and the usual *Rajinama* had to be signed. The decision of the Panchayet was generally confirmed and upheld by the Government unless there was a charge of corruption against the members of the Panch.

5. *Panchayet and Jury :*

✓The trial by Panchayet was in many respects like the trial by jury. The members of the Panch, it may be noted, were not paid out of the government treasury, like the amateur judges of ancient Athens, and it is not certain whether they got any allowance for their trouble. ✓Elphinstone says that they sometimes got some reward from the parties if the case was a protracted one. But Pratap Sinha strictly forbids any such gratification, and in theory at least it seems such private presents were not permitted. The Chhatrapati threatens to punish both the giver and the taker of bribe even if the former happened to be the party in the right.⁵

But the Panchayet, was not exactly like the modern jury. The modern jury is presided over by a judge, but the Panchayet was not always presided over by a government officer, and when a Panchayet from the disputants' village was chosen (as was generally done), the members were bound to be more or less acquainted with the facts of the case and came to take their judicial seat with more or less bias. Moreover the parties were sometimes allowed to nominate the members of the Panchayet, each party naturally nominating its own advocates.

In modern times, although the parties cannot nominate the jury, they can considerably influence the empanelment by exercising the right of challenging a juryman. As the attendance of the members of a Panch depended simply upon their sense of duty and dread of public opinion, it was bound to be more or less irregular. And when they were nominated by the parties perhaps they sometimes acted more like pleaders than judges. They were also hampered by the absence of any authority on their part to enforce their decision. Their order unless vetoed by the government was enforced by the Mamlatdar who also placed at their disposal a peon for summoning the defendant and witnesses to their presence.

6. Decision, in the absence of a party, not binding :

It is noteworthy that a decision arrived at in the absence of either of the parties was not deemed legally valid and the absent party could afterwards appeal against it and have it quashed. But very severe pressure was sometimes put upon the relatives of the absentee to make him appear in the court.

“After that, hard times ensued and to earn my living I left my daughter and mother in the village and went in search of some service. Then Valimbe went to Ramchandra Pandit and had my

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“After that, hard times ensued and to earn my living I left my daughter and mother in the village and went in search of some service. Then Valimbe went to Ramchandra Pandit and had my

mother arrested. My mother was there put to great trouble for four months and was then made to sign an agreement that she would produce her son in court within three months" (Statement of Shamji Ganghadhar Adkule in *Shamji Ganghadhar and Gopal Tukdev Adkule vs Bakdev and Gopal Ganghadhar Valimbe*)⁶ A man of rank could send his Karkun to represent him.

The defeated party had always to sign a document called *Yejitkhat* by which he renounced all claims to the property in question in favour of his opponent, and the winner had to pay a *Sherni* or *Harki* generally amounting to twenty-five per cent of the value of the disputed property or watan. But, as in assessment of revenue, consideration was made for his pecuniary condition and sometimes he was exempted from payment altogether and often a reduction adequate to his means was made. The Harki of twenty-five per cent. even should not be regarded as excessive, as the suitors in the Maratha courts were not required to pay any court-fee, and the services of professional lawyers were both unknown and unnecessary.

7. Appeals: ✓

⁂ An appeal against the decision of the Panchayet could be made only on the plea of

⁶ Watan Patren Nirada Patren, p. 3.

corruption, but if the appellant failed to substantiate his charge he had to pay a fine or *Gunhagari*, and as his co-villagers generally sat on the Panchayet the appellant ran the risk of suffering in the public opinion. The Gunhagari was usually fixed according to the means of the appellant and it may also be noted here that both in appeals as well as in original suits parties had to give security for abiding by the decision of the court.

For hearing appeal cases a fresh Panchayet could be appointed or the Peshwa's minister or the Mamlatdar (as the case might be) might decide the case without a Panchayet. Original cases might also be disposed of in a similar method. But as Elphinstone points out "though it rested with him (the Government officer) to decide whether or not the case required a Panchayet, yet it was reckoned gross injustice to refuse one on a question at all doubtful, and it was always reckoned a sufficient ground for ordering a new investigation when there had been no Panchayet."⁷ This popularity of Panchayets clearly proves that they were not generally open to corruption; although Elphinstone thinks that "the Panchayets themselves were open to corruption and to partiality." The Panchayets were popularly called "*Panch-Parmeshwar*," and the members

⁷ Elphinstone's Report, p. 58.

of the Panch in many documents are addressed by the parties as their parents (माय बाप). The people of Maharashtra would not have regarded the voice of the Panch as the voice of God, unless it fully deserved their confidence.

8. *Members of the Panch :*

Before we proceed further we may take note of the status of the men who were called upon to serve on the Panch. The Panchayet called to decide the suit of Bhanga *vs.* Bhanga already referred to, consisted of the Deshmukh, Deshpande and the gots (*got* literally means a caste as considered collectively, or relations and kindreds considered collectively). Hence it was a trial by peers. Elphinstone says that in deciding boundary questions the Panchayet was constituted of Patils, Deshmukh and Deshpande, assisted by the Mahar. We know from the reports of other cases that in suits about watans, the Zamindars of neighbouring Parganas as well as the Patils of the adjoining villages were called upon to serve on the Panchayet. In fact these rustic judges were expected to be well acquainted with the unwritten customary law of the country. In a document published in *Sanads and Letters* of Rao Bahadur Ganesh Chimnaji Wad (edited by P. V. Mawjee and D. B. Parasnis) we find mention of a Majalasi (a council) consisting of Rajsabha and Brahmansabha

appointed to hear an appeal case. The members of the Majalasi are described as people who have property (vritti) and who are directly or indirectly acquainted with the customary law of property. Consonant with this principle a dispute relating to the right of priesthood (Appana Bhat *vs.* Shripat Bhat) was referred to the Brahman community of Karhad for settlement⁸ and the witnesses summoned were Joshis or fellow priests.

9. Government sanction necessary for a Panch :

≈A Panchayet, however qualified, could not legally proceed to perform judicial duties unless properly authorised by the government, but such irregularities were sometimes overlooked by the Peshwas in consideration of the motive of the Panchayet. A case in illustration may be quoted here :

“A dispute between Pilaji bin Atmaji Ambare, and Sambhaji bin Krishnaji Ambare, in regard to the Khoti of Chirani in Tarf Khed of Taluka Suvarnadurga was without authority decided with the aid of a Panch by Ragho Vishwanath Ganpule, a Karkun attached to the temple of Shri Bhargavaram, and a document bearing the seal of the deity was issued by him. His

⁸ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 143.

brother was therefore taken to the Subha and was called upon to account for Ragho's conduct. The matter having reached the Peshwa, a pardon was given to Ragho, and his brother was ordered to be released." ⁹ The decision by this informal Panchayet was also ordered to be revised.

10. *Evidence.*

~ In civil disputes the parties were required to produce documentary as well as oral evidence, according to the nature of the case. They could however demand a decision by ordeal, of which various forms were in practice.

Let us see who the witnesses generally called upon to give oral evidence were, and before whom an ordeal, if resorted to, was undergone. These were generally the village officers, the *Pandhar* or the villagers and the gots or caste people, men well-versed in the history and traditions of the village or supposed to be so. From the evidence of old people handed down to us through the carefully recorded summaries of civil suits, we learn that the past history of the village and its old traditions were orally transmitted from generation to generation. Of the Pandhars the most important witnesses were the balutas who it seems, were fairly well acquainted with the traditional history of the village and its watan-holders.

⁹ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 145. Mr Bapu Purushottam Joshi's summary

That their evidence had very great weight and was considered essentially necessary will be found at a glance at the list of witnesses still preserved for us in the old records. Here we shall give three lists only. ✓ In a dispute (1749-50)¹⁰ regarding the Joshi and Kulkarni watans of Jalgaon in Pargana Supa and Jalgaon in Tarf Karhepathar in Prant Poona, Dado Shivdev, the defendant, signed a Rajinama, or agreement to abide by the decision (literally evidence) of the Pandhar of the villages in question.

The names of the witnesses summoned are as follows:

1. Sultanji bin Duryaji Patil.
2. Limbaji bin Mankoji Patil.
3. Subhanji bin Bapoji Patil.
4. Shetyaji bin Rayaji Patil.
5. Piraji bin Santaji Jadhava Chaugula.

Balutas:

1. Babu bin Mankoji Sutar (Carpenter).
2. Suryaji bin Udaji Lohar (Blacksmith).
3. Subhanji bin Navji Kumbhar (Potter).
4. Udaji bin Mankoji Chambhar (Shoemaker).
5. Subhanji bin Jivaji Gurab (attendant of village temple).
6. Vaghoji bin Limbaji Koli (fisherman and carrier of water).

- 7 Malharji bin Raju Nhavi (Barber)
- 8 Maniknak bin Rajnak (Mahar)
- 9 Yesnak bin Nimbak (Mahar)
- 10 Sambnak bin Ajnak Mang (Drummer)

In a dispute about the Patilki watan of Wadgaon Budruk¹¹ (1741-42) separate statements were made by different groups of Pandhars, and their names are quoted below in groups as in the document

GROUP 1

- 1 Bud Mali (Gardener)
- 2 Shivji bin Kondji Nhavi (Barber)
- 3 Bajaji bin Badjoji Parit (Washerman)
- 4 Raynak bin Saynak (Mahar)
- 5 Hasa bin Chandnak (Mahar)

GROUP 2

- 1 Nimbaji bin Janoji Sutar (Carpenter)
- 2 Badja bin Bahira Chambhar (Shoe-maker)

GROUP 3

Sukha Mali bin Sant Mali aged 75 formed a group by himself and seems to have been better informed than the preceding witnesses

GROUP 4

Patils of neighbouring villages

- 1 Kavji bin Malji Patil (Ambegaon Budruk)

¹¹ P. D., Vol I, pp 159 160

2. Rakmaji bin Malji Mate Patil (Khadak-basle).
3. Hemaji Patil Pola (Dhayti).
4. Yesji bin Gopji Patil Borate (Barje).
5. Yesji bin Yelboji Patil (Narhe).
6. Amai Borati Patlin (Hingne Budruk).

GROUP 5.

1. Hasa Mahar.
2. Lingnak bin Padamnak (Mahar as the name shows).
3. Raya Mahar.
4. Taba Mahar.

GROUP 6.

1. Moro Narhar Kulkarni.
2. Har Mali bin Mant Mali.
3. Sant Mali bin Raj Mali.
4. Shivmabla bin Raumabla.
5. Daj Varta.
6. Raya bin Ramnak.
7. Tahanak bin Santnak.

The difference in their statements is explained by the fact that they were not equally well informed about the past history of the village watans.

We get our third list from a case, Shivaji son of Tanhaji and others *vs.* Satwaji about the

Loharki and Sutarki watans of Khodad in Tarf Narayangaon.¹³ In this case also the parties signed a Rajinama to abide by the evidence of the Pandhar, and security as usual was taken from them. The Pandhars summoned were then taken singly and questioned about the past history of the watan after *bel bhandar* (analogous to copper and *tulsi*, तामा तुलसी of Bengal) had been given to them. Here also we find the witnesses divided into two groups according to the fulness or scantiness of their information; and a glance at this list will show how important the evidence of the balutas was in these disputes about watans, and here we find the age of the witnesses given against their names.

GROUP 1		Age
1.	Khandoji valad Subhanji Gaikwad	45
2.	Bahirji valad Ranoji Kuchila ...	34
3.	Ramji valad Padaji Kharmala ...	60
4.	Kachu valad Khandoji Gaikwad ...	35
5.	Mahadaji valad Harji Yeranda ...	50
6.	Gondji valad Ranoji Raut ...	55
7.	Nimbaji valad Yesaji Kumbhar ...	60
8.	Malharji valad Umaji Koli ...	35
9.	Hari valad Gangaji Dabra ...	60
10.	Lokha valad Amaji Chambhar ...	50

¹³ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 133-139. The first six of group 1 were Patils.

11.	Yesaji valad Tanhaji Mahar	...	60
12.	Uma valad Pangnak Mahar	...	35
13.	Pemnakh valad Yesnak Mahar	...	60
14.	Jabjya valad Satba Mahar	...	25
15.	Luma valad Hema Mahar	...	60

GROUP 2

1.	Javji valad Gangaji Patil Thorat	...	34
2.	Sakhoji valad Satbaji Mule	...	34
3.	Khandoji valad Shetyaji Mule		60
4.	Gundaji valad Pilaji Patil Dhete	...	35
5.	Hangoji valad Malji Dhangale	...	70
6.	Chahu valad Mahadji Parit	...	35
7.	Aman valad Lakshman Mali	...	55
8.	Nagoji valad Muktaji Mule	...	35
9.	Jarya valad Nama Mang	...	25
10.	Nimbaji Panman	...	20
	and his mother Rakhmai	...	65

The winner in this case paid a Harki of Rs. 200.

11. Trial by Ordeal:

Although the parties signed a Rajinama to abide by the evidence of the Pandhar, and furnished security for their obedience, the defeated party might claim a fresh decision by ordeal and if one ordeal failed he could ask for a trial by an ordeal of a different sort. Sometimes he changed his mind about the selection of ordeal

before the first proposed by him had been tried. How much indulgence was given to a Maratha suitor, in order that he might be satisfied that no injustice had been done to him, and how often he changed his mind can be shown by a document quoted by Mr. Bhaskar Vaman Bhat in the *Tritiya Sammelan Vritta of Bharat Itihas Sanshodhak Mandal*.¹³ "Upon that, on the second day Somaji refusing the decision of the *gots* demanded an ordeal by water. He said that the man drawn by hand out of the water by the Pandhri should be regarded as in the right. When you were asked whether you were willing to undergo that ordeal you answered in the affirmative. The next day he changed his mind, refused the ordeal by water and suggested that the case should be decided by an oath in the mosque at Kasba Ranjangaon; on the third day he rejected the idea of an oath in the mosque and again demanded an ordeal by water. Then it was ordered that the plaintiff and the defendant should pour water over each other's hands. He who would pass this ordeal should enjoy the watan. Somaji rejected this proposal also and prayed for an ordeal by fire."

Of the ordeals enumerated in the above document the first deserves our special notice, because it was to all intents a trial by the Pandhar or by

the *got*. The parties and the Pandhars were sent to a sacred river like the Krishna, or better, to a *sangam* of special sanctity like the Krishna-Vena sangam. There, at an auspicious moment the Pandhars stood on the bank after their bath in the sacred stream. The defendant and the plaintiff still remained standing in the river. Either the Patil or some other trustworthy man there present was then ordered to draw the rightful party from the water and pass a conscientious verdict. An ordinary man would not deliberately give a wrong verdict at such a place, at such a moment and in the presence of all his co-villagers. He would not only ensure for his soul eternal perdition after death, but also public execration while alive. This ordeal was therefore not unreasonable, specially in those times of strong faith in religion and of stronger superstition. In a dispute regarding the Patilki watan of Fursangi, in Tarf Haveli, of Pargana Poona, between the Kamthes and the Gaikwad Harpales, such an ordeal was resorted to. While the assembled Pandhars stood on the sandy banks of the Krishna, Yeknak, a Mahar was ordered by the gotis and the balutas to draw the rightful owner of the watan from the river bed and he loudly declared his verdict.¹⁴

¹⁴ P. D., Vol. I, p. 168.

12. *Ordeal by Fire and heated Metal:*

There were so many forms of ordeal that it will not be possible to describe them all. We will here take notice of the more important ones only. One of the most common ordeals was to draw a piece of metal out of a pot full of boiling oil. This had to be performed in a temple of special sanctity and at an auspicious moment previously fixed by the government. The ordeal had to be witnessed by the co-villagers of the parties as well as by a government officer deputed for that purpose. An ordeal with a piece of metal in heated oil is thus described in the summary of a dispute regarding a Patilki watan between Devji and Shankarji Dangat: "You were then sent with Rajshri Apaji Hanmant Subhedhar and Balaji Dadaji and Baghoji Raut, officers from the Huzur and the District to Pali for the performance of an *Agnidivya*. The *got* of that place assembled in the temple and they lighted a fire and heated *ghi* and oil mixed in customary proportion. You bathed and after a declaration of your right, took two pieces of metal from the heated liquid in the presence of all. Then your hand was bandaged and sealed. The next day the aforesaid parties were brought to the Huzur by the Karkun of the District officer. On the

third day, in the presence of the Majalasi the bandage was taken off and the seals broken. On your hand were found only the marks that formerly existed there. Nothing more, nothing less; you passed the ordeal successfully.”¹⁵

Another ordeal is described in a document quoted by Mr. Bhat in the journals of the Bharat Itihas Sanshodhak Mandal.¹⁶ There, the palm of the man is first bandaged with leaves of peepul tree and new thread. Then a heated ball is placed on his hand. He is then made to walk over seven concentric circles. After completing the seventh circle he drops the metal ball on a little heap of grain which is burnt and it is thus shown that no fraud has been practised. These ordeals were undoubtedly the relics of a bygone age. But the fallacy of such trials was not altogether undetected; in one case at least we find the Sabha Naik objecting to the demand of a *rava* (drawing out a piece of metal from heated oil) on the ground that when reliable evidence was available, an ordeal should not be permitted. Fire ordeal was in fact very seldom resorted to in ordinary cases.

Ordeals with boiling water and with burning lamps are also mentioned. In the latter case truth was supposed to be indicated by the period of burning. When an oath in a temple or

¹⁵ P. D., Vol. I, pp. 165-166.

¹⁶ Tritiya Sammelan Vritta, p. 44.

mosque was taken, a period was fixed within which divine intervention was expected to take place. If the man lied, some illness or other mishap was expected to befall him or his family; but if he was left undisturbed, it was believed that his assertion had been corroborated by the god of the temple. On one occasion a man took an oath on the feet of Shahu Chhatrapati, and as fate would have it, died of cholera within a month.¹⁷ "Then Bhikaji Harpala said that the Maharaja's feet were the Krishna to him and he would take an oath on his (Raja's) feet. Accordingly he swore that the watan in the aforesaid Mauja belonged to him and that Kamthe was a Thalvaik (Mirasi) peasant. Within a day or two of this oath Bhikaji Gaikwad got cholera, he had to be carried back to the village on the back of a bullock and there he died after a month in consequence of that false oath taken on his behalf."

Boundary disputes between two villages were often settled by ordeal. One of the Patils walked on the right boundary with a cow's hide on the head; here also a fixed period was allowed to elapse for the manifestation of divine confirmation. But the Patil had afterwards to undergo a Prayashchitta for defiling his body.¹⁸

¹⁷ P. D. Vol. I, p. 163.

¹⁸ P. D. Vol. I, p. 131-133. For another ordeal to settle such disputes see P. D. Vol. VII, p. 65.

13. *Nivad patra and Watan patra* :

At the conclusion of the case a *nivad patra* or a *watan patra* was given to the winners in the Peshwa's name—for all judicial measures were taken in his name. The winner was allowed to take away the original, but a true copy was always kept in the Peshwa's Daftar. These copies were sometimes useful in testing the genuineness of the old records. In a dispute regarding a Deshmukhi watan in 1792-93 an old document of doubtful character was produced. The seals affixed on it had become indistinct and unreadable. It was then compared with old documents of similar dates and with similar seals and its authenticity was proved beyond doubt.¹⁹

Elphinstone says that generally great favour was shown to men of rank. In all countries, in all ages, men of wealth and influence have for all practical purposes defied law with more or less impunity.²⁰ It does not seem that in Maratha countries they enjoyed any unusual advantage.

¹⁹ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 69.

²⁰ That things were not much better in this respect at Bombay during the Governorship of Elphinstone can be proved by the interesting revelation made in the Journal of Lady West. I quote here only one extract : " Aug. 24 (1823), Mr. G. has the natives flogged without any examination, trial or usual formality. A friend sends a note to him and says pray flog the bearer and it is done." For other instances of high-handedness see *Bombay in the days of George IV*, ed. Drewitt, Longman, 1907.

In the 11th volume of his *Sources of Maratha History*, Mr. V. K. Rajwade has published a long but incomplete account of a suit about the inheritance to the property of the Chaskar family. The Chaskars were near relations of the Peshwa (1779 A. D.) and the case was brought before the celebrated Nyayadhish Ram Shastri.

The procedure was, of course, informal, but that was not because the parties concerned were near relatives of the Peshwa. Even the procedure of village Panchayets were extremely informal. Sometimes Ram Shastri was interviewed in his own house in private. Sometimes he consulted a common friend of the disputants; but on the whole he conducted the business with firmness and with an attitude of strict justice. In fact Ram Shastri was not the person to deviate from the path of justice for the sake of any man in the world. And Ram Shastri was not the only Nyayadhish famous for uprightness in Maratha History. European observers cared more for form and procedure and hard and fast rules. The absence of these led them to pass sweeping remarks on the judicial system of the Marathas. Even an acute observer like Elphinstone could not rise above this ordinary prejudice. Not that the rich and powerful could not buy justice sometimes, but that was by no means the general rule; we find high officials

punished for misdemeanours, and their watans and inams attached for liquidation of debts. Powerful Sardars, however, could not be brought under law. This was the bane of feudalism, till then prevailing in European countries too. So far as the European critics of the Maratha system are concerned, it was a difference of ideals more than anything else that shocked them so much.

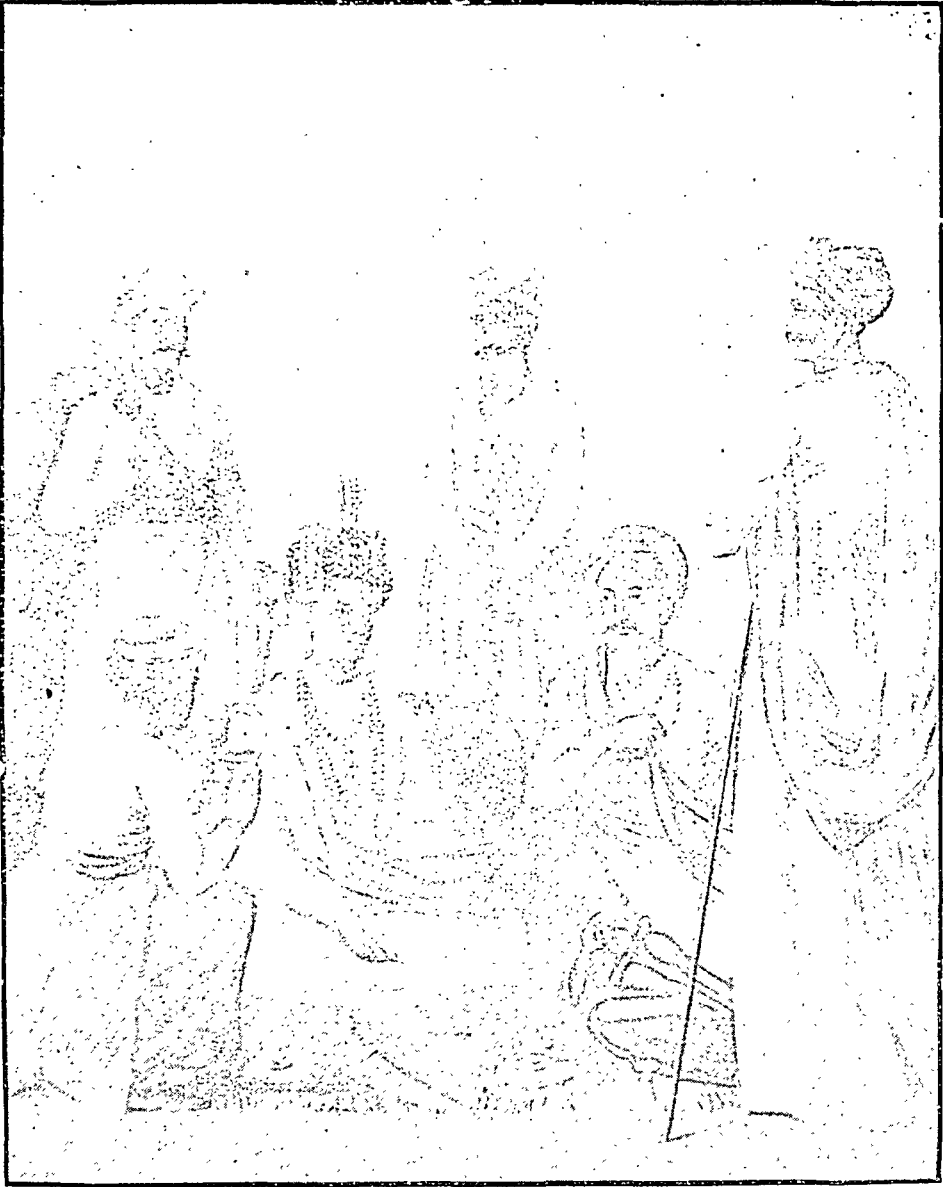
13. *Fees in Civil Suits :*

Let us now enquire what fees the Peshwa's government usually demanded from suitors in civil cases. In suits relating to money bonds, the usual fee was twenty-five per cent. of the money realised, sometimes a lower fee, that of twenty per cent. was charged. The creditors however had very seldom to go to the law courts of the land for realisation of the money lent. The custom of the country allowed them to practise dunning, the most extreme form of which was *dharna*, which debarred the debtor from taking any food or drink before satisfying his creditor. Dharna could be practised against men of the highest rank in the country, the Peshwa not excepted. Daulat Rao Sindhia was subjected to it by some Muhammadan soldiers, as Broughton tells us.²¹ Government interference

²¹ Broughton, pp. 31-32.

for realisation of loan could therefore be necessary only in exceptional cases, and a fee of twenty-five or twenty per cent. cannot be regarded as too high. These cases were sometimes referred to a Panchayet. "Fair bankrupts," says Elphinstone, "seem to have been let off pretty nearly as with us. Fraudulent ones were made to pay when discovered, notwithstanding previous release."²² In partition suits however, property up to the value of Rs. 300 was exempt from any charge, property above that value was charged at the rate of ten per cent. Some estimates may also be formed of the customary laws from the summaries of the civil suits preserved in the Peshwa's Daftar. In inheritance cases we find the eldest son could not be altogether disinherited. So far as watans were concerned, the right of seniority belonged to a son of a *lagna* marriage, although younger than a son of *pat* (widow remarriage). A mother could claim maintenance from her son and also money for religious performances as well as for going on a pilgrimage. Although the property of a man without any issue belonged by law to the government, still consideration was made for his widows. Brothers were sometimes allowed to inherit the property of a childless brother on the payment of an inheritance tax, and adoption

²² Elphinstone's Report, p. 65



Peshwa Madhav Rao II and his Ministers

of a child always required a formal sanction of the government, which ordinarily could be secured without any difficulty. The property of a foreigner dying within the Peshwa's territory was carefully preserved, and investigation was made about the legal heirs of the dead. When they could not be found, the property of the dead man was spent in charity for the welfare of his soul in the other world. In disputes about watans, the disputed property was placed under attachment to force quick settlement.

14. Elphinstone's Strictures :

Elphinstone says, "The judicial system seems to have been very imperfect. There was no regular administration of justice : no certain means of filing a suit : and no fixed rule of proceeding after it had been filed, It rested with the officer of Government applied to, to receive a complaint or to neglect it altogether. The reception of your appeal from his injustice, equally depended on the arbitrary will of his superior. The other occupations of these officers rendered it difficult for them to attend to judicial affairs, even if well disposed, and these occupations increasing with the rank of the officer, the PAISHWA (or the minister) who was the mainspring of the whole machine, must have

been nearly inaccessible to all men and entirely so to the poor.”²³ Perfection of course cannot be claimed for the Maratha institutions or for any human institution in the world—there would have been no room for evolution had everything been perfect. But the observations of the great historian, to say the least, do not touch the heart of things. No doubt the Kamavisdars and Mamlatdars had other works to do. But their judicial duties mainly consisted in appointing a Panchayet and confirming its decision. Their work was more of supervision than of direct participation in the administration of justice. Moreover, there were provincial courts under the District Nyayadhis in important towns. If every one of these officers refused to receive a complaint, the plaintiff could still approach the Nyayadhis or chief justice at Poona, and the Peshwa himself. The chief court at Poona had always been put under a brilliant set of scholars and independent judges like Ram Shastri and his successors from 1760 downwards to the time of Baji Rao Raghunath, when Balkrishna Shastri Tokekar held that important office. The Peshwa was not at all inaccessible to his subjects, rich or poor. The students of old documents know well how many of these watan patras and nijad patras begin with the customary clause,—“you came to

the Swami at such and such a place and complained to him, etc.”

✓The Peshwas went out on tour every year and received complaints and punished offenders. In the month of Rabilaval of San Ihide Arbain Maya wa Alf only (1740-41) Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao visited no less than eleven places (Pali, and some neighbouring forts and villages Parli, Vadvathar, Poona, Garade, Pargaon, Bhuinj and Satara).²⁴ Nor was this journey of exceptional length. Similar tours were made almost every year if not every month. Even the worthless Baji Rao Raghunath used to go out on these tours and on one occasion he punished some miscreants.²⁵ The Maratha princes were always accessible even to the poorest of their subjects—and Broughton, by no means an admirer of things Maratha, was struck with the ease and informality with which Daulat Rao Sindhia could be approached even while on an expedition by the seekers of justice.²⁶

15. *Maratha and English Judicial Institutions compared :*

The fact is judicial institutions were still going through a process of evolution in India as elsewhere, and evolution proceeded on different

²⁴ P. D., Vol. II, p. 238.

²⁵ See letters of Parashram Bhat and Malhar Ramchandra Kulkarni to Rajashri Nanaji. Rajwade, Sources of Maratha History, Vol. X, p. 398.

²⁶ Broughton, Letters from a Maratha Camp.

lines in different countries. In England for instance more stress was laid on procedure. English jurists had given a scientific turn to their legal studies and the Legislature of the land had by a series of Acts made a systematic effort to remove any ambiguity where it previously existed as to the purpose and intents of the existing laws. Even the unwritten customary laws had been given a definite shape through the decision of the courts. There was a well organised machinery for enforcing the laws of the land and there was a body of professional men well versed in laws to help the judges in interpreting them. The English suitor knew quite well where to file his case in the first instance and to whom to appeal and he was ordinarily sure of a fair decision provided he could afford to pay the costs of a lengthy suit, for a good lawyer always charged a high fee and a chancery suit caused proverbial delay.

The Maratha system on the other hand excelled in simplicity. There was no codified law, no fixed procedure, and even a lengthy suit hardly cost the parties anything but the unavoidable worries and anxieties. But these advantages were marred by the disadvantage caused by the lack of settled procedure. The suit could be prolonged indefinitely by the obstructive tactics of an unscrupulous party. He could claim a trial by ordeal after the Panchayet

had already delivered a judgment. And if he found one ordeal inconvenient he might demand a second trial by an ordeal of a different description. If the Mamladar was a dishonest man, and he was seldom proof to present, the losing party might still get the decision arrived after so much delay and so many ordeals cancelled, and one who had an influential and highly placed friend at the court had always some advantage over his less fortunate adversary. To add to these difficulties there was no professional lawyer and the provisions of the law, written and unwritten, were not always clear and definite. The old Hindu law-givers did not always agree and differences were sometimes accentuated by their commentators. Customs varied in different districts and offered no valuable aid to the bewildered judge. The result was that the honest poor might often find it difficult to defend his rights against the dishonest rich. But the English laws and English lawyers and English courts would hardly help him better. For in the first instance the poor man could not expect to engage as able a lawyer to defend him as his wealthy adversary and the heavy expenses of a lengthy suit would ultimately prove his ruin, even if he was so fortunate as to get a favourable verdict. It is unnecessary to labour this point any further. It is clear that both the systems had their merits

and demerits. Elphinstone passed very severe strictures upon the weak points of the Maratha judicial system, because in his own country he had not been familiar with them. But he was by no means blind to the merits of the Panchayet as he had recommended its continuation even after the British conquest of the Peshwa's territories.

16. Dr. Hope's Views :

It should be noted in this connection that British courts of law were at first unpopular in India. Their settled code of procedure, which ought to have commended itself to the Indian suitors was at the beginning regarded as an unnecessary innovation. The punishment inflicted by these courts, the rapidity with which their judgments in some cases were enforced, also bewildered the illiterate Maratha peasant, and it is no wonder that they sighed for the Panchayet with which they were familiar.

In fact the simplicity of the old judicial system readily caught the imagination of European writers and Dr. Hope, who had first-hand knowledge of India, definitely expressed himself in favour of the original Maratha judicial system. He says, "We have found much to admire and very little to detest in the administration of public officers at Gwalior. Such is our conviction knowing well that if the people of India—the 180 millions—could go to the poll on a choice

of governments an almost countless majority would prefer a native one to one which was ever supervising and controlling every act of their public life and haunting them with a vision of an English court of Law.”²⁷

17. *Serious Crimes Very Rare :*

In the administration of criminal laws also the authorities were the same as in civil cases ;— the Patil in the village, the Kamavisdar or Mamlatdar in the District, the Sarsubhedar in the province and the Peshwa and the Chief Justice at Poona above all.

If we judge by the effect, the administration of criminal justice in Maharashtra was as efficient as that of civil justice under the Peshwas. Although he does not miss any opportunity of denouncing the system as a whole, Elphinstone himself admits, “ The country was peculiarly free from crimes. Gang robberies have never, since I have been in the country, reached to such a pitch, as to bear a moment’s comparison with Bengal, described in the paper laid before the Parliament.”

18. *Panchayet in Criminal Cases :*

It does not seem that a Panchayet was so frequently resorted to as in civil cases ; but that

²⁷ The House of Scindea, p. 5.

it was sometimes called to make enquiry into the facts of a criminal case as well as to pass judgment thereon, admits of no doubt. In the year 1760-61, Yeshvant Rao Kshirsagar of Kameri in Tarf Valve, of Prant Karhad, and two others were killed in consequence of a dispute about land revenue, and Kshirsagar's son complained against the murderers. We find that the Patil, Kulkarni and Rayats of the village were summoned to the Huzur for an enquiry into the case, and afterwards the compensation to be paid to the murdered man's son was settled by a Panchayet²⁸

"Upon that Shidoji bin Firangoji Kadam surnamed Ludge, half Patil of the village, Anaji Tukdev and Janardan Baburao Kulkarni and other Rayats were summoned to the Huzur. After proper enquiry and by the evidence of the Patil, Kulkarni, and the Rayats of the village, the charge of the three murders was proved against the aforesaid Sultanji and Bajji. This dispute had to be disposed of, and according to the suggestion of the Panchayet it was ordered that out of the Inam lands of Sultanji and Bajji Patil and the Mirasland of the Kunbi two houses and sixty-five bighas of lands with boundary duly described should be granted to the complainant as a hereditary Inam." This document not only shows that a Panchayet was appointed for trying homicides, but also that the relatives of

the murdered person had to be compensated by the murderer.

19. Fine according to the Resources of the Offender :

Capital punishment in the days of Shahu Chhatrapati and Balaji Baji Rao seems to have been unknown. Murder and treason were punished with fine, confiscation of property, and imprisonment. The Maratha rulers seem to have realised that punishment was to be used as a corrective only and not to drive the offender to the extreme of despair and convert him into a sworn enemy of human society. That explains the queer but common prayer on the part of convicted offenders that the fine inflicted should not exceed their means; and why Government agreed not only to take the offenders' income into consideration while fixing the amount of fine, but also allowed them to pay the sum so fixed, by instalments.

“Morshet Bani, a resident of Peth Somvar was accused of murdering his wife. He was brought to the Huzur and examined. He was found guilty and he confessed that he had committed the crime. He also represented that a fine should be levied upon him, taking into consideration what his debtors owed to him and he should be absolved of his sin.”²⁹

Although the guilty had to pay a fine according to his means, the innocent, if accused, could not escape without any payment. Perhaps that people should suspect him was thought a sufficient offence. ✓In 1752-53 Rupaji bin Rambhaji Mudtadak was accused of pelting Setya, the younger son of Jakhoji bin Setyaji Bhadag Vanjare, to death, and although his innocence was proved, he had to pay a Harki of Rs. 1,500.³⁰ Elphinstone rightly remarks, "the innocent might sometimes suffer, but the guilty could scarcely ever escape."

When the government levied Harki upon the innocent, a false accuser could not expect mercy when detected. Fine was the usual punishment for such an offence. Three cases of false complaints are found in the Selections from Balaji Baji Rao's Diaries. In the first, Vithoji Jingar was fined Rs. 75 for bringing a false charge of theft against Govindaji Jagannath Deshmukh.³¹ In the second we find how Rama, a barber of Kasba Saswad, had brought a false charge of witchcraft against Subhanji Jingar and was fined Rs. 40. The Gunhagari as usual was "*Jivan Mafik*."³² In the third instance Soyraji of Fort Narayangad was fined Rs. 50 for accusing Maini, daughter of Rakhamaji Repal of adultery with Shivaji a

³⁰ P. D., Vol. II, pp. 47-48.

³¹ P. D., Vol. II, p. 61.

³² *Ibid*, pp. 61-62

washerman.³³ It is noteworthy that Maini proved her innocence by an ordeal by metal (that of drawing out a piece of metal from a potful of boiling oil). So in these three cases of false complaints, the fine varied from Rs. 40 to 75. Evidently the offenders were men of small means, for during the administration of the same Peshwa, and only ten years later, we find that Hanmant Bhat, brother of the Pratinidhi, was fined Rs. 1,000 for giving false evidence.³⁴ This explains the policy of levying fine in proportion to the means of the offender. What would be a preventive in case of Rama, a barber, could not be a preventive in case of the Pratinidhi's brother. Therefore the latter had to pay a fine twenty-five times more than what was levied upon the former, although the offence committed by the barber might have been more serious.

20. *Witchcraft* :

The offence of the barber mentioned above brings to our notice a crime that would certainly appear novel to us, witchcraft. Yet the European states had taken serious steps for its suppression. Witchcraft was made criminal in England by a statute of Elizabeth which had not been repealed till 1736. In the meantime no less than 30,000 men and

³³ *Ibid*, p. 63.

³⁴ *Ibid*, p. 61.

women had lost their lives on the charge of selling their souls to the Devil. The most inhuman of these murders were those of Mrs. Hickes and her daughter a girl of nine in 1716. In Austria the law against witchcraft was suffered to disfigure the statute book as late as 1766. ³⁴ The Peshwas, however, thought fine and imprisonment sufficient penalty for intercourse with evil spirits. Only one case is recorded of capital punishment. But special measures were taken against prisoners convicted of witchcraft and sorcery. In 1775-76, Martand Joshi Rairikar was imprisoned in Killa Ghangad for practising sorcery, the warders in charge were instructed not to allow him to apply sacred ashes or sandal mark on his forehead or to perform the daily religious rites and to recite sacred hymns.³⁵ He was not to be allowed to take more than one meal per day, and he was required to prepare his own food. Sometimes the Peshwas went further, and took direct measures to deprive the supposed offender of his infernal power. ~ In 1775-76 Moraji, a resident of Poona, was accused of killing a man through the instrumentality of evil spirits. His offence was proved beyond any doubt by the evidence of fifty of his caste people! They further prayed that in order to render his witchcraft ineffectual,

³⁵ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 114-115.

two of his upper teeth should be extracted, and he should be made to drink water from a Chambhar's reservoir, and lastly he should be excommunicated. This pious prayer was, for public safety, granted; and further, as the persecuted wizard had threatened to practise witchery against his caste people through Berads and Mangs, if he was excommunicated, the Peshwa ordered him to be imprisoned in the fort of Kohaj and there kept under strict guard.³⁶

. When a man was charged with causing harm to others by sorcery and witchcraft, he was generally fined and ordered to recall the evil spirits under his commands. Public opinion and common suspicion were regarded as sufficient proofs³⁷ of his offence. Only in one case was a man banished on the charge of witchcraft. So anxious was the Peshwa to save the person and property of his subjects from the infernal influence of the evil spirits in the service

³⁶ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 115.

³⁷ The published documents do not tell us how wizards were detected in the Peshwa's dominions. A curious mode of trying witches in Behar has been described, in the *Annual Asiatic Register* (1801), Tracts, pp. 91-92. Jenkins says that the method of detecting witches by the Nagpur Government was as follows: "The usual test by which witches are discovered, is that of plunging them, tied up in a bag, into the water; if they sink, they are innocent, if they swim, guilty: and they are punished sometimes with death, at others their teeth are drawn; they are made to drink the water in which the skins of dead animals have been immersed, are beat with twigs of a particular bush, supposed to have peculiar properties and are turned out of their caste, and sometimes out of the village." Jenkins' Report, p. 60.

of the sorcerers and wizards that two officers were appointed to make a thorough enquiry about the sorcerers in the Talukas Anjanvel, Suvarndurg, Ratnagiri, Vijayadurg, Devgad and Saudal in the year 1774-75. The first officer was asked to visit the villages of Talukas Anjanvel and Suvarndurg, and he got two Karkuns and six peons to assist him, and he was also authorised to employ five more peons if necessary. The second officer was appointed on an annual salary of Rs 350 and an additional allowance of Rs 261 for Karkuns and peons and stationery. He was to levy fine on the wizards when detected, but here also the principle laid down was that the amount of fine should not be exorbitant. The document clearly states that "in the instructions about enquiry framed by the Sarsubha the amount of fine prescribed was from Rs 25 to Rs 50. But the Rayats of the Konkan were poor and the Sarsubha wrote a letter in the year San Salas that taxes and fine should not be insisted on. Therefore you should fix Gunhagari (fine) according to their means' ³⁹ Even highly placed people often suffered for suspected intercourse with the evil spirits. A Kashmiri general in the Sindhia's employ was disgraced on this account in the early years of the 19th century.

21. *Adultery:*

Here we shall take notice of another offence, adultery; the punishment being so far as the female offenders were concerned, slavery and penal servitude. They were, however, let off if any of their relations offered to stand surety for their future good conduct. In 1741-42 one such female slave was released on the application of her husband who offered to replace her by another slave.³⁹ In 1754-55 a Koli woman arrested on a charge of adultery was saved from the ignominy of a slave's life on the application of her caste people, but she had to pay a fine of Rs. 50.⁴⁰

In 1785-86 Janaki Lagdin, an adulteress, then undergoing penal servitude at fort Visapur, was released on her father standing surety for her good conduct.⁴¹ In one case we find that mutilation was substituted for slavery. In 1781-82 Ahili, wife of Janoji Davra of Dholwad in Prant Junnar committed adultery with Devji Khandoji Chinchvada. Devji was fined and Ahili got her liberty at the loss of her nose.⁴²

Girls thus condemned to slavery had to work hard in fortresses. Generally they had to do building work. But sometimes they were

³⁹ P. D., Vol. I, p. 214.

⁴⁰ P. D., Vol. II, p. 67.

⁴¹ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 108.

⁴² P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 108.

sold off like ordinary articles of sale. A Brahman Gangadhar Bhat Karve bought a female convict for Rs. 30 only in 1755-56.⁴³ The male offenders on the other hand were generally let off with a fine, and sometimes after a term of imprisonment

22. Slaves well treated :

The institution of slavery in Maharashtra had not the horrors of slavery of Europe and America. The slaves were treated well. They were sometimes freed on the occasion of great festivals, or simply because they were old. Moreover the slaves in the Maratha country were allowed to possess property, and sometimes actually secured their release by purchasing a suitable substitute for their owners. In the year 1773-74 two female slaves were bought by Fuli and Tulshi, female slaves belonging to the government.⁴⁴ Slaves on the government establishment were specially well treated. We find that in 1762-63, Rs. 1,303-4 was granted for clothes to be given to female slaves of government on the Dasra festival.⁴⁵ In the same year Badi a slave was released and allowed to go wherever she pleased.⁴⁶ In 1774-75 the daughter of a Muhammadan female slave attached to the cavalry under Sakhoji Mule was

⁴³ P. D., Vol. II, p. 68

⁴⁴ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 219.

⁴⁵ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 318-23

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 318

decently married to a Muhammadan boy.⁴⁷ It may be noted here that legal marriage of a slave girl meant her manumission.

"A letter to Eshi, a woman, when you were at Purandhar, Rajashri Ranoji Bhonsle represented that you were his female slave's daughter. Thereupon you had been summoned to the Huzur, but it was found that the gentleman had formerly given you in marriage. Therefore he cannot force you to slavery. Nobody has any right to interfere with your liberty."⁴⁸

The condition of the slaves in other parts of the Maratha empire was equally good. Broughton tells us in his *Letters from a Mahratta Camp* how well treated the slaves were in Sindhia's country. His knowledge was first-hand. Two female slaves belonging to Mamma (a relative of Daulat Rao Sindhia) came to his camp one day. "They told me," says Broughton, "that they were brought up in a family of Mamma, where they led a very easy life; their only employments, during the day, being to attend upon his wives, of whom he had three in camp, and rub the old gentleman's legs when he lay down to repose: and at night they were at liberty to dispose of themselves as they pleased. The Muha Raj's favourite wife has a number of these girls about her, from every part of India, who receive their

⁴⁷ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 250.

⁴⁸ P. D., Vol. I, p. 213.

daily food and two suits of clothes annually, and are allowed to earn as much more as they can and in any way they think proper * * * The *Butkees* (female slaves) remain attached to the family during their lives ' 49

Jenkins writes of the treatment accorded to slaves at Nagpur "These are brought up in the families of their purchasers, generally as domestic servants, and are frequently placed almost on an equality with their master's children in regard to food and clothing, and it is not uncommon for persons who have no children of their own, to adopt their slaves as their sons, and leave their property to them at their death Task-labor or any work beyond what would be expected of a hired servant, is never exacted from slaves, and in general, they are treated with kindness and consideration, and become more the attached servants, and it may be said friends of the families in which they have been nurtured, than the degraded slaves, from whom no labor can be obtained except what is extorted by fear of punishment " 50

* Broughton p 75 Compare with this the harsh treatment by the Portuguese of their slaves— She imprisoned in her house one other slaves for having stolen something By reason of severe punishment and deprivation of food he died and was buried in the dunghill This murder of slaves and slave girls is common among the Portuguese, and few are the houses in which the skeletons of their bodies would not to be found " Manucci, ed Irvine, Vol III, p 113

* Report on the Territories of the Rajah of Nagpore (Calcutta, 1827), p 63

Bigamy and Forcible Marriage :

Conjugal infidelity reminds us of two other offences connected with marriage, bigamy and forcible marriage. Polygamy in India was of course, no crime for a man, but bigamy on the part of a girl, specially when she was a Hindu, was unthinkable. Yet a few instances of this rare offence are recorded. The guardians of the girls were really to be blamed, the innocent victims were still in their minority. The usual punishment for forcible marriage was confiscation of property or excommunication or both. Sometimes the offender was fined. In one case an irregular marriage of a girl of three years, with a Brahman bridegroom forty-five years old, performed by force while the parents of the victim lay unconscious, was declared null and void and a second and more formal marriage with a suitable bridegroom was ordered. The offenders in this case were fined.⁵¹

Of bigamy we have two cases only. In 1752-53, Nimbaji vallad Yesu Jhagda of Sinnar married the wife of Dhondji Mali of the same village according to the pat system. The afore-said Dhondji had been away from home, and Bapuji Mali, his father-in-law, got his daughter

⁵¹ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 107-108,

married for a second time But Nimbaji did not enquire whether Dhondji was living or dead before he married the girl He was therefore fined Rs 80⁵² In the second case the punishment inflicted was imprisonment, In 1770 71, Bhu Bai Vyas, a Brahman lady got her daughter married twice and the whole family consisting of mother daughter and a son was imprisoned at Shivner⁵³ The boy in this case was clearly free from any guilt and here comes one of the drawbacks of the Maratha system In order to overawe would-be offenders the Peshwa's government committed to prison innocent children and helpless wives of convicted prisoners and absconding offenders Repeated instances of such measures are found in the papers of the Peshwa's Daftar We will here choose three only from those of the first Madhava Rao's administration In 1765 66 we come across a paper which pithily states that Khandya Berad of Chakan having committed theft his mother wife and three children (two belonging to him and one to Somya Berad) were sent to fort Kohaj⁵⁴ In 1766 67, certain Bhats having been caught thieving, 11 women and 12 children of their families were condemned to rigorous imprisonment Their daily ration was fixed at

⁵² P D, Vol II, p 63

⁵³ P D Vol VI, p 211

⁵⁴ P D, Vol VI pp 203 204

one seer for each adult and half a seer for each child." ⁵⁵

In the same year Baji Sonar was imprisoned at Killa Visapur for committing theft, and his wife was sent to prison at fort Sinhagad. ⁵⁶

2.4. Mutilation—a punishment :

We have seen that capital punishment was not inflicted even for murder during the administration of Shahu Chhatrapati and Balaji Baji Rao. But the two Madhava Raos not only condemned offenders convicted of treason, murder, causing grievous hurt, dacoity and theft, to death, but sometimes caused them to be mutilated. Robbers and thieves were mercilessly deprived of their hands and feet. Here, of course, we find the revival of the old principle of removing the offending limb recommended to the Hindu kings by the compiler of Manu's code, in bygone days of antiquity. Among the papers of the second Madhava Rao have been preserved long lists of convicts condemned to lose their hands and feet

⁵⁵ P. D., Vol. VI, p. 204.

⁵⁶ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 204. It should be noted that uncommon severity was practised in those days for effectively suppressing robbery. Warren Hastings found it necessary "to order that every convicted Dacoit should be executed in his own village in all the forms and terrors of the law and that his whole family should be made slaves and that every inhabitant of the village should be fined." Hunter, *The Annals of Rural Bengal*, p. 73.

one of these lists enumerates the following sentences for theft

Capital punishment	20 men
Right hand and left leg to be cut off	13 „
Right hand only to be cut off	18 „
Right hand and one ear to be cut off	4 „
Right hand and right leg to be cut off	1 man
One ear to be cut off	1 „

and one man was to be first paraded ludicrously dressed and then nailed to death⁵⁷

These punishments were undoubtedly cruel, but it should not be forgotten that humanitarian principles had very little influence on the criminal laws in India as well as in England in the first decade of the 19th century. These inhuman penalties therefore were perhaps less shocking to the people of the time than to us. Even in the native country of Peel and Mackintosh the criminal law was hardly humane. For, while the thief in the Maratha country escaped with the loss of a hand or a foot, his English cousin forfeited his life for the same offence. Capital punishment was prescribed by English law for offences which the Maratha judge would punish

with imprisonment only. To the natural severity of English criminal laws was added the influence of the rich. Sir Spencer Walpole says,—“The least influential member of Parliament had sufficient power to have any offence made a capital felony, without benefit of clergy. In 1815 it was capital offence to steal goods to the value of 5s. in a shop. It was capital offence to steal 40s. from a dwelling house. It was capital offence to break frames. It was made a capital offence in 1816 to destroy machines. It was a capital offence to steal a horse or sheep. Up to 1808 it had been a capital offence to pick a man’s pocket. Up to 1812 it had been a capital offence for soldiers and mariners to beg. It was seriously proposed in 1813 to punish the fraudulent debtors with death.” “There are no less than two hundred felonies,” said Mackintosh in 1819, punishable with death.” The result was that although “more people were hanged in England than in all Europe besides,” crime went on increasing. When this was the state of things in England, it is no wonder that in India mutilation should be inflicted on convicted criminals by Indian and English rulers alike. According to Busteed, mutilation was executed on criminals in Bengal under the orders of the British Government.⁵⁸ Elphinstone found the Maratha country peculiarly free from crimes. The reason was

⁵⁸ Echoes from old Calcutta, pp. 116-120.

that the rulers were not naturally cruel. They would make every consideration for a deserving offender. Even treason was sometimes pardoned or slightly punished. Some of Sumer Singh's (murderer of Narayan Rao Peshwa) accomplices were let off with a small fine. This want of vindictiveness on the part of the Peshwa's government, and absence of hard and fast criminal laws, enabled the judicial officers to be lenient, and so when an exemplary sentence was passed to overawe would-be offenders, it never failed to strike terror.

CHAPTER VIII

SOCIAL AFFAIRS ; PRISON AND POLICE

We have at another place remarked that the Peshwas and the Chhatrapatis before them were not only the secular but also the ecclesiastical head of the state. They united to a certain extent the rights and prerogatives of the Pope and the Emperor. This peculiar position left its mark on the criminal laws of the time. Murder was to them not only a crime but a sin also. And as the crime had its legal punishment, the sin had its religious penance as prescribed by the Shastras. So a murderer even when pardoned had to perform the necessary Shastric penance. During the reign of Shahu Chhatrapati one Shidoji Raut murdered his concubine and cousin. At the intercession of his brother Shetyaji, Shidoji obtained a free pardon, but he was ordered to perform the Prayashchitta for cousin-murder.¹ An Abhayapatra granted to Shetyaji Raut : "Your brother Shidoji had a concubine and his cousin Bakaji induced her to commit adultery. They did not pay any attention to warning given

¹ P. D., Vol. I, p. 183.

once or twice Thereupon Shidoji caught his concubine and cousin at the same place in his house and killed them A written information was sent to the Huzur with a prayer for pardon A free pardon is given but he should get himself absolved of the sin of cousin-murder by performing Prayashchitta

1 *Social Affairs*

This combination of the secular with the religious authority naturally led the Peshwa to regulate social affairs and he could not logically avoid this duty even if he would We have seen how Sambhaji Maharaj had sanctioned the decisions of the Chhandogyamatya as the ecclesiastical head of the state Similar orders were often issued in the name of Shahu Chhatrapati Feudal chiefs like the Angrias had undertaken similar duties within their fiefs On the *shuklatritiya* of Ashwin, Shaka 1656 (the third day of the lighter half of Ashwin or October 6, 1734) Sambhaji Angre Sarkhel with due salutations referred the case of a Brahman woman Savitri to the Dharmadhikaris and other Brahmans well-versed in the Vedas and the Shastras of Kasba Karhad² It is to be noted here that on these social questions the decision of the *got* or caste people

was often confirmed and the Panchayet was appointed for enquiry about old customs as well as decision thereupon. An unreasonable judgment of the got was seldom if ever upheld.

The Peshwas did not exercise this authority of regulating the social affairs because they were Brahmans. It formed part of their duties as the chief magistrates of the state. In one of the documents we find that cases of social customs and rights were sometimes decided by Muhamadan rulers like Aurangzib.³ As the Joshis assert, "On a previous occasion, the servants of the fort and from two to four thousand Mahars of the province applied to Aurangzib Padsha that the Jyotishis should be ordered to officiate in their marriages. After an enquiry about the old customs, he decided that the Jyotishis were not to officiate in Mahars' marriages and up to this time we have worked according to that decision."

2. *Jurisdiction over Non-Hindus :*

As the non-Hindu ruler of the country was required to enquire about the social customs of the Hindus and decide disputed social and religious questions, so the Peshwas were also called upon to decide about the religious rights and customs of their non-Hindu

³ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 279-281.

subjects Thus in the year 1754-55, a dispute (Bhikaji and Rustumji Andharu *vs* others) about the priesthood of the Parsis was decided by an officer of the Peshwa⁴

In the year 1769-70 a Portuguese clergyman asked for a government patent for his claim to officiate as Priest in the church of Ramed, in Salsette⁵ "Padre Farelpadra Majardesh, a resident of Revdanda came to the Huzur at the Muklam of Kasba Poona and informed that the Padreship of the church of Ramed in Salsette belonged to him Accordingly Ramaji Mahadev had granted the Padreship to him and the Sarsubhedar also had given him a letter (of confirmation) A patent from the Huzur should be given him The Padreship was therefore granted to him and he was ordered to enjoy its customary dues A letter to Ramaji Mahadev —As the abovementioned clergyman is in government service and cannot attend his duties at the church, he should be allowed to send an agent to perform the duties of the church

3 *Spirit of Toleration*

It appears that this extensive jurisdiction effectively exercised by the Peshwas over the social and religious affairs of their non Hindu subjects did not cause any discontent, for these

⁴ P D, Vol II, pp 24-25

⁵ P D Vol VII, p 342

Brahman rulers were uncommonly tolerant and generous to people who professed a faith other than their own. The grants and farmans issued by the Muhammadan rulers were not only continued but from time to time new Inams were given for the maintenance of mosques and shrines. They liberally contributed to the construction of mosques and churches, and timber from the preserved forests was frequently supplied for such purposes. Cannons were fired thrice at the request of a Portuguese clergyman to celebrate a Roman Catholic festival at Revdanda. Baji Rao II permitted the Portuguese clergymen at Bassein to exercise all their old rights with the single exception of cow slaughter, an act so repugnant to Hindu sentiments.⁶ And the other Maratha rulers did not lag behind in this respect. Daulat Rao Sindhia and his officers always joined the Muharam procession dressed in green as Muhammadans should do, and even to-day Muharam remains the most popular festival at Sindhia's capital.

4. *Superstition :*

Their solicitude for the suppression of witchcraft shows that the Peshwas were by no means free from superstition. Further instances of

⁶ Biker, Vol. X, p. 276; Sen, *Historical Records at Goa*.

their superstitious beliefs are met with in their religious and social regulations. In 1721-22, one Rupee was given as a present to an Agnihotri to counteract the evil effects of the fall of a lizard in the hall of audience.^{6a} When on the Dasraday 1740, the flagstaff of the fort at Mahuli was struck by lightning, one hundred Brahmans were feasted and *Shantijap* was repeated a hundred-thousand times.⁷ In the year 1751-52, there was an earthquake in the province of Kalyan Bhivandi and good Brahmans were ordered to assemble for a *Shanti* ceremony (to appease the supposed wrath of the gods).⁸ In 1753-54 performance of a similar ceremony was ordered at fort Visapur,⁹ because of unusual prevalence of sickness in the fort. We come across a set of similar orders during the administration of the second Madhava Rao. In 1773-74 the idol in the famous Pandharpur temple was touched by a lizard, and *Shanti* and *Maharudra* ceremonies were performed; over and above this one thousand Brahmans were fed.¹⁰ In 1775-76 the Brahmans of Kasba Trimbak represented that they were seriously troubled since the discontinuation of the customary sacrifice of a buffalo to the local goddess on the Dasra-day, and the practice was ordered to be reintroduced.¹¹

^{6a} P. D., Vol. II, p. 195.

⁷ P. D., Vol. II, p. 195.

⁸ P. D., Vol. II, p. 204.

⁹ P. D., Vol. II, p. 205.

¹⁰ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 255.

¹¹ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 257.

5. *Influence of Orthodox Views :*

Sometimes the Peshwas were influenced by orthodox ideas. In 1744-45, the Peshwa was informed by a person from Bassein that during the Portuguese regime some Brahmans of the Yajurvedi class introduced the new unorthodox practice of giving their daughters in marriage to nephews (by sisters). But now as a righteous government was established and as the new practice was quite contrary to the *Dharmashastras*, a fine of Rs. 50 together with the punishment of excommunication should be inflicted on those who adhered to this practice. The suggestion was accepted and instructions were accordingly issued to the officers in charge of Bassein.¹²

The first Madhava Rao excommunicated Sakho Moreshwar Belsare Joshi Kulkarni of Jejuri and confiscated his Kulkarni and Joshi watan because he did not observe mourning for a death in another branch of his family. Copies of the order were sent to government officers and the Brahman community of Jejuri.¹³ In 1789-90 during the administration of Madhava Rao II the Prabhus were ordered to desist from pronouncing Vedic *mantras* and other practices peculiar to Brahmans.

¹² P. D., Vol. II, p. 198. This custom prevails among the Gauda Saraswat Brahmans commonly known as Shenvis.

¹³ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 360-361.

They were strictly ordered not to obstruct the remarriage of a willing widow in their community¹⁴ But it appears from an order of Baji Rao Raghunath dated 1796-97 that the Prabhus had the right of wearing sacred

¹⁴ The order runs as follows The Brahmans of Kasba Pen in Pargana Sakse came to the Huzur and complained that the Parbhus did not behave according to the regulations formerly made during the administration of the late Peshwa Narayan Rao about their religious conduct and secretly celebrate the Brahman rites An enquiry should therefore be made and order passed It has been found that during the regime of the late Peshwa Narayan Rao the following regulations were made and the Prabhus had signed an agreement to behave in accordance to these

(1) That they would perform no religious rite accompanied by a recital of Vedic Mantras

(2) That they would not pronounce Vedic Mantras, if any occurs (in course of their religious rites)

(3) That they would not use cooked rice in offering oblations to the dead

(4) That in performing daily oblations, etc, they would pronounce Pauranic Mantras only and they would not feed Brahmans at their house.

(5) That they would not worship the Shaligram deity

(6) That they would visit only the temples frequented by Shudras

(7) That they would salute Brahmans by calling out the word Dandarat and use the same word in saluting men of their own caste

(8) That they would not oppose the remarriage of any willing widow of their caste The Peshwa orders strict observance of these regulations, made in his father's regime, and threatens any failure to do so with severe punishment The Government officers in different Mahals are entrusted with the execution of the above order (for original document see Peshwa's Diaries, Sawai Madhava Rao, Vol. III, pp. 287-292) This document does not prove the illegality or otherwise of the Prabhu claims, and is cited simply as an instance of state interference in social affairs. I have not the least intention of participating in a controversy which has already become acrimonious, and nothing will hurt me more if the quotation of this document here is given an interpretation likely to offend my many esteemed Prabhu friends.

thread like the Brahmans.¹⁵ Baji Rao II tried to enforce the old Shastric regulations about marriage specially in the Brahman community. He ordered that no Brahman should sell his daughter or keep her unmarried after she was nine years old.¹⁶

To Mamledar and other officers in Talukas and Mahals. "The Huzur has been informed that Brahmans sell their daughters to their castemen and keep them unmarried after the age of nine years. Thereupon this letter is addressed to you. You should strictly warn all Brahmans in every village under your jurisdiction against sale of girls and keeping them unmarried after nine years. Failure to observe this will not be excused. Make careful enquiry from the day of the receipt of this letter and excommunicate every one who may have sold daughters after the receipt of this letter. About their re-admission into the caste necessary orders will be passed by the Huzur."

6. *Widow Remarriage:*

Liable to be guided by superstition and orthodox views as the Peshwas were, a modern student will be struck more by the liberal spirit that pervades their social regulations

¹⁵ P. D., Vol. V, pp. 251-252.

¹⁶ P. D., Vol. V, pp. 259-260.

than their occasional tinge of narrowness. We in Bengal are more concerned with the question of widow remarriage and readmission to society of students returning from foreign lands. We have often come across the tax known as Patdam (tax upon widow remarriage) in documents previously quoted and among the regulations about religious conduct of the Prabhus we have seen them stipulating that they would not oppose the remarriage of any willing widow of their caste. Widow remarriage was a common practice among the non-Brahmans of Maharashtra. There were two forms of remarriage—Pat and Muhurta; the Pat seems to have been more informal. Justice Telang says that the celebrated general Parashram Bhau Patwardhan had contemplated the remarriage of his young widowed daughter although the custom did not prevail among the Brahmans and it is said he got the sanction of no less an authority than the celebrated Nyayadhisht Ram Shastri.¹⁷ Why Parashram gave up this bold idea is not known, and Brahman widows in Maharashtra like their unfortunate sisters in Northern India have been condemned to life-long misery and austerity.

Among the non-Brahmans, however, not only widow remarriage but marriage of a woman to

¹⁷ Vasudev Shastri Khare has proved conclusively that there is no evidence for this assertion; see his *Adhikar Yoga*.

a second husband in case of prolonged and continued absence of the first, depriving her of any means of livelihood, was also permitted. An instance of such a marriage is found among the papers in the Daftar of Shahu Chhatrapati. The facts of the case are as follows: One Godji Gaikwad, Patil of Mauja Bahuli, Tarf Muthekhore, represented to the Huzur that Jani, daughter of Manaji Ghorepada Patil of Sayagaon was given in marriage to Jotyaji Savant of Kasba Dahigaon. Jotyaji however left her and went away. She waited for her husband for ten or twelve years but he did not return. In the meantime her parents died and there was nobody in her husband's family to maintain her. Then she went to the King and represented that as she had none to support her, she should be advised what she should do. The King, thereupon, ordered her to marry a second husband according to the Pat rites. Then she came back to Muthekhore and informed the Deshmukh, Deshpande, and the *got* of the purport of the Raja's order, and they married her to Godji Gaikwad according to the Pat rites. But the latter was arrested by Pant Sachiv and asked by whose authority he had performed the Pat ceremony. Godji answered that he had the authority of the Raja and as he was afraid that in future he might be similarly troubled by others, he requested

the King to give him a written authority. An Abhaya Patra was accordingly granted to him.¹⁸

7 *Victims of Violence :*

The Hindus of Maharashtra in those days were more considerate towards the gentler sex than they are now, and the government always extended its support to the women in difficulties whenever necessary. The following case will perhaps make the orthodox leaders of the Hindu society gape in wonder. The original document was discovered in the house of the Dharmadhikari of Karhad by Mr. V. K. Rajwade, and has been published by Mr Datto Vaman Potdar in the reports of the Bharat Itihas Sanshodhak Mandal : "Sambhaji Angre Sarkhel informed with due salutations, all the good Brahmans well-versed in the Vedas and the Shastras and the Dharmadhikaris of Kasba Karhad that Savitri, wife of Purushottam Palsura, a resident of Dhopeswar in Tarf Rajapur, was going to her mother's house in the village of Rayepatan. On the way she was violated by a Muhammadan, Malik Abdala. The woman returned to her house and related the incident to her people, and a written report of the case was thereupon sent to the headquarters at Vijayadurg. The

Muhammadan was brought to the Huzur and decapitated. The woman however prayed that as she was violated by force and against her will and as the Saheb was the upholder of religion, some Prayashchitta should be prescribed for her so that she might conduct herself in the proper way. Thereupon it has been settled that she should perform Prayashchitta in the holy place of Karhad in the presence of the Brahmans and she should be then admitted to the right of dining with her caste people, and to other ordinary rights. Therefore this letter is addressed to you so that you may prescribe a Prayashchitta in accordance with the *Shastras* for the lady in order to admit her as before to the caste and the rights of the Brahmans and give her a letter for her caste people in Prant Rajapur.”¹⁹

Another document²⁰ discovered by Mr. Rajwade and published by Mr. Potdar gives an account of a low caste woman who was simply attacked by an intending violator, but was rescued by a wayfarer. The woman although quite innocent and chaste was outcasted. On her taking a solemn oath about her innocence after the usual bath at one of the Sangams she was not only given a *shuddhapatra* or acknowledgment of her innocence but was also publicly honoured by government.

¹⁹ Tiritiya Sammelan Vritta, pp. 93-94.

²⁰ *Ibid*, p. 97.

It is a pity that after a century and a half of western education we are still unprepared to show that sympathy for such unfortunate victims that the Peshwas readily extended to them under similar circumstances.² The Peshwas compelled a reluctant husband to take back his deserted wife, through a sense of social duty, for restitution of conjugal rights could not be claimed by a Hindu wife. ✓

8. *Informal Marriage :*

But neither the Peshwas nor the people of those times were unreasonable. Sometimes they would tolerate the omission of form if the motive was good, as the case quoted below amply illustrates. Sambhaji, son of Harji Gauli of Mauja Abte of Tarf Nid in Prant Kalyan came to the Huzur and represented that after the death of Singrup Gauli, his wife, after wandering here and there, came to Sambhaji's father Harji and lived with him. Harji had by her a son named Chimaji before the *Muhurta* marriage could be performed. After that both Harji and the woman died. At the time of his death Harji requested his son Sambhaji to get Chimaji legitimatised with the consent of the *got*. Thereupon Sambhaji and his uncle brought the whole fact of the case to the notice of the *got*, and they consented to get Chimaji married in

a Poona family. He requested that the Saheb should issue orders to the *got* of Poona. A letter was issued and the Gaulis of Poona also admitted Chimaji into their caste.²¹

An informal marriage, though not complete for legal purposes, was declared valid if children were born to the pair. In 1755-56 the carpenter community of Sarkars Junnar, Sangamner, Baglan, and Daulatabad were ordered to acknowledge a *Shastra Vivaha* between Khandoji Banrao, a carpenter of Mauja Redgaon, and a woman after she had borne him a son. Khandoji had to pay a Nazar of Rs. 1,001 to the government on this occasion. "A letter to the Sutar community of Sarkars Junnar, Sangamner, Baglan and Daulatabad: Khandoji Banrao, a Sutar of Mauja Redgaon and Sirbande, of Pargana Chandvad, came to the Huzur, and represented that his first and second wives legally married to him (wives of Lagna marriage) were without any issue. His third wife, a woman of the carpenter caste, was married to him according to the *Shastra Vivaha* rites. Her name was Haibati, and she had borne him a son. He therefore prayed that his caste-men should be ordered to admit her into the caste after the usual assembly of the community. The *got* is ordered to assemble and admit Haibati to their caste."²²

²¹ P. D., Vol. VII, pp. 325-326.

²² P. D., Vol. II, p. 208.

It seems this laxity in marriage laws was allowed only among the lower castes. But in one case at least, we find that a parent's fault was not allowed to add a lasting stigma to the social position of the son even among higher castes. A letter from Shrinivas Parashram Pratinidhi to the Brahman community of Karhad relates that, the mother of Apaji Ram of Masur was accused of adultery, and went to her parent's house, but Apaji should have the right of dining with his caste people and he has been purified by a Prayashchitta ceremony. All Brahmans should therefore procure that right for him.²³

9. *Involuntary social Offence*

We may now turn to those unfortunate outcasts who could not avoid dining with their captors, while prisoners in a Muslim camp. In those days of constant warfare, when everybody ran the risk of being taken a prisoner by their Muhammadan enemies, and as the Muhammadans of Janjira in particular treated their Hindu captives with scant consideration, their friends and relatives had to treat them leniently on their return home. The caste people of the unfortunate man were generally sympathetic and all that the Peshwa had to

²³ B I S M, Irtiva Sammelan Vritta, p. 96

do was to sanction the decision of the *got*, receive a Nazar from the grateful outcast, and to prescribe the necessary Prayashchitta for his readmission to the caste. Sometimes when the Peshwa was directly approached, a Rajsabha (or assembly of the nobles) and a Brahman-sabha were called for considering the case, and a letter was then issued to the Brahmans or to the *got*. One case here, casually selected, will illustrate the system of readmission as it prevailed during the regime of Shahu Chhatrapati. "Putaji-bin Mudhoji Wadghar, Chaugula of Kasba Jiti in Tarf Chambargonde, while employed under Davalji Somvanshi, went with the army to Surat. He fell into the hands of the Mughals and was polluted by them. He remained in the Mughal camp for a year. When Balaji Pandit Pradhan was returning from Delhi, Putaji joined his army and came to his village. He related the facts to his castemen who decided upon admitting him into the caste. The Patils of Chambhargonde, Rasni and other villages communicated the decision of the caste to the Raja and asked his permission to carry it into effect. The Raja directed that Putaji should be first purified according to the Shastras and then admitted into the caste" (Parasnis's summary).²⁴

Although the caste people could, subject to the government sanction, readmit a polluted member into their rank, they could not without such order exclude anybody from his caste. In 1742-43 Malharji Jadava, a Kunbi, was excluded from society; his caste people and the Shete Mahajan of Ahmadnagar were ordered by Shahu to readmit him into the caste²⁵

Not only could an innocent man be protected from the unreasonable oppression of his caste-men, but a man who had willingly or unwillingly committed a social offence could, if repentant, and willing to perform the necessary penance, be forced into his caste. Very recently a Brahman Barrister had petitioned the Bombay High Court to order his caste people to invite him to their ceremonial dinners on the strength of the old practice that prevailed during the Peshwa regime; but their Lordships did not think they could exercise all the prerogatives that the Peshwas enjoyed.²⁶

10. *Exaction of Dowry prohibited*

As the clergy in mediaeval Europe had tried to bring under their jurisdiction everything directly or indirectly bearing a religious character, so the Peshwa also, as the head of the society,

²⁵ P. D., Vol. I, p. 219.

²⁶ I am indebted for this information to Sir Devaprasad Sarvadhikari.

exercised a control over everything social and religious. The question of adoption and marriage came as a matter of course under these headings. The marriage regulations of the Peshwas evinced a liberal spirit that may be profitably imitated by their modern descendants. Baji Rao II strictly forbade any exaction by the bride's father from the bridegroom, and threatened to punish all parties concerned in such transactions.²⁷

"The officers of the Talukas of Bassein, Vijayadurg, Anjanwel and Revdanda are directed to issue orders preventing the relatives of the bride from taking any sum either as a present or as a loan from the relatives of the bridegroom. The relatives of the bridegroom or other persons settling a marriage were directed to give immediately after the marriage, information to Government of any amount paid by them to the relatives of the brides in contravention to the above order. The following penalties were prescribed :

1. The relatives of the bride receiving any such sum to return it to the relatives of the bridegroom and to pay an equal amount as fine to the government.

2. If the relatives of the bridegroom or any person settling the marriage failed to give information to government of the amount paid to the relatives of the bride, the relatives of the

bridegroom should forfeit to government double the amount paid by them to the relatives of the bride, and the person settling the marriage double the amount received by him." (Summary by B. P. Joshi.)

11. *Forcible Marriage:*

These regulations are based on the strict injunctions of the Shastras, but the Peshwas did not hesitate to take advantage of technical flaws to declare a forcible marriage null and void. A marriage was nullified in 1778-79, although *Kanyadan* and other ceremonies were over, and the *Hom* alone remained to be performed.²⁸ Such a marriage is still legally incomplete, but a Hindu will regard such an excuse as flimsy on a Hindu monarch's part. But what seems particularly strange is that they should sometimes go out of their way to order the wedding of marriageable girls without being approached by their parents.²⁹ In fact his double function made the Peshwa's position unique in the world. The Pope could excommunicate a man, but he could not force the execution of his order by a threat of confiscation of property outside his own kingdom. The King can condemn a man to penal servitude, but he cannot further embitter his position by excommunication. The

²⁸ P. D., Vol. VI, pp. 260-261.

²⁹ P. D., Vol. V. p. 259

Peshwas could do both yet the combination of these double authority did more good to the Hindu society than harm. In fact it is a matter of wonder that the spirit of reform gradually but surely growing under the auspices of the native rulers, should have been checked and retarded in the Bombay Presidency for more than a generation after its contact with the West.

A peculiar method of demanding justice may here be noticed, because it had its origin in the religious aspect of murder as a sin. Aggrieved parties sometimes drew the attention of the authorities to their grievances by committing suicide.³⁰ The aggressor, or the party giving cause of offence, was held responsible for such deeds, and not only justice was done but the aggressor was sometimes required to perform a penance.

12. *Prisons :*

We may now enquire how prisons were managed and how the great department of police, so necessary for prevention as well as detection of crimes, was worked.

There being no regular prisons some rooms in forts were generally used for that purpose.

³⁰ This was by no means peculiar to Maharashtra. Drury noticed the custom in Travancore also. See Drury, *Life and Sport in Southern India*.

Elphinstone remarks that 'imprisonment in hill forts and dungeons was common and the prisoners unless they were people of consideration, were always neglected, and sometimes allowed to starve. Hard labour in building fortifications was not unknown.' Elphinstone's remarks were undoubtedly based on his experience of the worst days of the Maratha administration under that bad prince Baji Rao Raghunath. Hard labour it has been found is better for the health, both physical and mental, of the prisoners. And as for the rest, it seems they were treated according to the standard of the time. In Maratha prisons allowance of food was regulated by weight and not by price, and in apportioning prison rations the rank of the prisoner was taken into consideration. But such distinction is not unreasonable; because the standard of living differs in different stations of life. Even in British India, we find some difference in rations allowed for European and Indian prisoners.

13. *Leave for Religious Duties :*

The Maratha prisoners sometimes got leave for going home to perform some religious ceremonies like the Shradh of dead parents, marriage of grown-up daughters, and the sacred thread ceremony of grown-up sons, which the Peshwa as the ecclesiastical head could not permit to be neglected. In 1760-61 Govind Rao

Apaji, was released from his prison at fort Chandvad, as his two daughters were ten and eleven years old and could not be kept unmarried any longer, and for the marriage expenses, an order was issued to give him in cash or in ornaments Rs. 1,000 out of his family estate which was probably confiscated by the government.³¹ In 1776-77, the wife and son of Trimbak Ganesh Bhat, then imprisoned at Ratnagiri, were released for the performance of the sacred thread ceremony of the boy.³² They were however to come back to their prison after the ceremony was over. In the same year Dhondo Gopal Kelkar, an adherent of the pretender, died in his prison at fort Ghangad. His wife was imprisoned at Ratnagiri. Order was issued to release her for the performance of the Shradh ceremony of her dead husband.³³

14. *Consideration for the Prisoners Health :*

At times some consideration was made for the health of the prisoners. In 1753-54 Tulaji Bhosle was transferred from Vyaghragad to Wandangad because the climate of the former place was very cold and unsuitable to the prisoner's health. Among the papers of the elder Madhava Rao's Daftar (1766-67), we find a list of nine persons

³¹ P. D., Vol. II, p. 76.

³² P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 141.

³³ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 142.

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³¹ P. D., Vol. II, p. 76.

³² P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 141.

³³ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 142.

imprisoned in different places for complicity in a plot with Tulaji Angre.³⁴ The eight male prisoners were all put in irons, while the single convict of the other sex was differently treated. The fact is worth noticing as the names of the male prisoners show that some of them were Brahmans, while the female was an ordinary Kunbin or slave girl. In 1776-77, the shackles of Dhondo Gopal Kelkar were ordered to be removed because his feet were swollen, and he was in consequence unable to stand or sit.³⁵ In 1773-74, Hari Sakhoji and his wife imprisoned in the fort of Sinhagad were released,³⁶ because they were seriously ill. The next year saw the release of nine persons belonging to the family of one Ramchandra Viththal,³⁷ for the climate of the fort Sinhagad did not suit their health. The cause of imprisonment in this case was evidently political, for the brother of Ramchandra, then at large, was ordered to be imprisoned in their stead. In 1781-82 four female prisoners in the fort of Ghangad got *saris*, bodices and blankets as the place was cold.³⁸ That one of these women was not a Brahman can be easily guessed from her name Darki Kayasthin. Keso Moreshwar Phadke and his wife Rakhmabai were imprisoned at Revdanda. The lady

³⁴ P. D., Vol. VII, p. 239.

³⁵ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 142.

³⁶ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 136-137. ³⁷ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 139-140.

³⁸ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 151-152.

became pregnant in 1806-07. The fort was an unsuitable place for her delicate condition and Baji Rao Raghunath ordered her to be released and to be sent to her relatives.³⁹

The wives and relations of prisoners were sometimes permitted to live with them in their prison rooms to look after them whenever their health demanded it. The servants and the relatives in such cases were fed by the government during their residence in the prison. In 1777-78, during the administration of the second Madhava Rao, it was ordered that the wife of Mahadji Ganesh Phadke, a prisoner in the fort of Chandangad, and a female attendant should be permitted to reside with him, for the prisoner felt indisposed and the usual ration should be given them.⁴⁰ Similar permissions were given to the family of Madhava Rao Krishna Bhingarkar in 1785-86.⁴¹

15. *Treatment of Political Prisoners :*

But it should be remembered that no prisoner could demand any privilege as a matter of right. They had to depend entirely on the favour of those in authority and not infrequently had to pay for it. Sakharam Hari Gupte, a faithful friend and adherent of Raghoba, was

³⁹ P. D., Vol. V, p. 225.

⁴⁰ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 143.

⁴¹ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 152-153.

very inhumanly treated in the prison. He was loaded with heavy irons, he was kept in unhealthy places, and ultimately ill health, bad food and unusual rigours of the prison life brought about his death. His wife had left no stone unturned in order to secure the government permission for nursing her husband in the prison. She spent her all and paid heavily for the favour which was granted to others. But when the favour was finally purchased her husband needed no nurse. He was out of all troubles.

But the political prisoners were ordinarily well-treated. Good arrangements were made for their boarding and lodging, as well as for other comforts, although they were strictly watched and their communication with the outside world, and sometimes with their own warders, was strictly prohibited. Mr. Ranade has made mention of the rigour with which the supporters of Raghoba Dada and the pretender were treated. But we have to remember what trouble these men gave to the state. The Maratha statesmen were not naturally cruel. The pretender was not thrown under the feet of an elephant until he had fled from his prison and endangered the security of the government. The ordinary soldiers of his party were leniently treated, as were some of the adherents of Sumer Singh, the murderer of Narayan Rao.

It is a pity that we know very little about the internal management of prisons under the Peshwas. In Europe philanthropists and reformers like John Howard and Elizabeth Fry visited the prisons and exposed their horrible condition. Unfortunately, however, no such graphic accounts of the Maratha prisons have come down to us. In England we are told, "the people were made worse in prison. They left it better instructed in crime than when they entered." We do not know what the effect of a term of imprisonment was upon the morals of a Maratha offender. But whilst the denizens of English prisons in the 18th century were mostly small debtors, it appears that the prisoners in Maratha hill forts were mostly criminals, and some attempts were made to secure their moral welfare. Kashi, wife of Trimbakji Chawan, left her home and began to practise adultery. She was sent to be imprisoned in the fort of Sarasgad with instructions that strict watch should be kept over her to prevent her immoral practices.⁴²

The offenders convicted for adultery were always imprisoned at different places, so that the man could never in future meet the woman.

Some extra precaution, it seems, was taken in the case of Brahman prisoners. The death or suicide of a Brahman was commonly believed

⁴² D. P., Vol. VIII, p. 190.

to bring calamity upon the country. Brahman prisoners tried to secure their release by threats of suicide, and were therefore put under a very strict watch.

The greatest defect in the Maratha system was that the prisoner had hardly any right. He might be very leniently treated and he might suffer from all sorts of hardships. Everything depended on the nature of his offence, his rank and wealth, but ordinary offenders escaped uncommon hardship on account of their obscurity.

16. The Police :

From the prison we shall now turn to the police. Here, as in the judicial administration, it will be convenient to begin from the village. The village police was under the Patil, and the chief police officer in the rural republics was the Mahar. The district police was under the Mamlatdar.

In detection of crime the *Jaglas* or village watchmen, consisting generally of Mahars and Mangs, were helped by criminal tribes as the Ramoshis, Bhils, and Kolis. Unless the stolen property could be recovered or the offence could be traced to some other village, the Police and the criminal classes had to compensate the party robbed. All responsibility however ended with the detection of the offenders or tracing the offence to another village. In the latter case

the inhabitants of the place to which the offence had been traced were liable to make compensation. But sufficient proof had to be put forward for such suspicion before the police and the criminal tribes could shake off their responsibility. Mr. V. K. Rajwade has published an incomplete report of such a tracing of offence in the 10th Volume of his Sources of Maratha History (page 116). The case is so interesting that we wish that the rest of the report could have been recovered. Abaji Khando, an officer, was going home with a report from Dada Saheb. He was robbed by thieves near Khandyala. The people of Khandyala traced the offence as far as Bhuinj. Thence it ought to have been traced towards Chingholi, but the Ramoshis, by a common compact, asserted that the Ramoshis of Khadki had committed the offence and also induced Abaji Khando to support their assertion. The Ramoshis of Khadki were thereupon thrown into prison, but there was no proof whatever against them. Abaji Khando's loss was valued at Rs. 30, and it was settled that the Ramoshis of seven villages should subscribe the amount.

17. *Criminal Tribes :*

The peace of the country was generally disturbed by Bhils and Kolis living a semi-independent and altogether uncivilised life in the hills and jungles. Complete subjugation

of these hill tribes was impossible. Hence their chiefs were held responsible for any theft and disturbance committed by them. For the Police duties performed by the Bhil Naiks, they were permitted by the government to levy certain customary dues or *Haks*. So successful was this Police arrangement that inspite of its evident theoretical defects, Elphinstone recommended its continuance in the early days of the British administration in the Bombay Presidency.

When there was any unusual outbreak of theft and robbery, an additional force from the local Shibandi or the neighbouring forts was sent to help the local police. A force of 101 Rohila *Gardis* was sent in 1782-83 to help the Kamavisdar of Nasik, because thefts and dacoities had increased there.⁴³ The expenses of these additional police force were met by a house-tax payable by everybody including Brahmans, but the poor were generally exempted. In the year 1777-78 Krishna Rao Anant had to employ 33 Berads and Mangs at an annual expenditure of Rs. 2,104. He was instructed to raise this amount by taxing the well-to-do alone.⁴⁴

Such additional Police force was also sent on temporary duty for maintaining peace and order

⁴³ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp. 133-134.

⁴⁴ P. D., Vol. VIII, pp 132-133,

in holy places of pilgrimage like Pandharpur and Nasik at the time of great religious festivals when people of all descriptions flocked there. In 1753-54, one hundred and fifty men from the forts of Satara, Chandan and Wandan and twenty-five horsemen were deputed to Pali for one month to maintain order at the annual fair.⁴⁵ In 1788-89 one hundred *Gardis* were sent to Nasik to keep order among the pilgrims visiting the place during the *Sinhastha*.⁴⁶

18. *The Kotwal:*

In big cities the police was placed under an officer called Kotwal. His duties included regulation of prices and taking of census. The duties of the officer are enumerated as follows in a document issued in 1767-68, for the guidance of Janardan Hari, when he was appointed to the Kotwalship of Poona :

1. Minor disputes in the Peths and in the Kasba should be disposed of by the Kamavisdars of the several Peths : disputes of importance should be disposed of by the Kotwal.

2. The Kotwal should fix the prices of goods and a list of the prices fixed should be daily submitted to the Government.

3. The Kotwal should arrange to supply labourers as required by Government from

⁴⁵ P. D., Vol. II, p. 72.

⁴⁶ P. D., Vol. VIII, p. 136.

among the artizans and the members of the several castes in the city ; sales and purchases of land sites should be made with the permission of the Kotwal who should prepare the necessary documents and receive the fees due to Government.

4. The Kotwal should take the census ; he should keep a record of all persons coming into and leaving the city. The Kamavisdars of the Peths should supply him with information on this point.

5. Should the Kotwal consider any regulation followed by the last Kotwal or any new regulation to be fit for adoption, he should report it to the Huzur and act in accordance with such orders as might then be issued.

6. All disputes relating to roads, lanes and houses should be disposed of by the Kotwal.

7. The Kotwal should furnish monthly accounts to Government

8. The Kotwal should issue orders for any proclamation being made by the beat of drum.

9. Professional gamblers should not gamble without the permission of the Kotwal who should levy from them the usual fees. Other persons are not allowed to gamble.⁴⁷

It is needless to say that his ample authority gave the Kotwal ample opportunities for abusing

⁴⁷ P. D., Vol., VII, pp 233-236 Summary by B. P. Joshi.

it. The abuse of power reached its climax in the notorious Ghasiram, a Kanojia Brāhman, who occupied the post of Kotwal at Poona during the administration of Nana Fadnavis. Much capital has been made out of his case by European writers. Grant Duff remarks, "No instance of greater neglect on the part of an administration, or of more extraordinary criminality in a subordinate officer, is recorded in the annals of any state than the case of Ghasiram, Kotwal, or Police Superintendent, of the city of Poona. This man, a Brahman native of Hindoostan, employed the power with which he was vested in perpetrating the most dreadful murders. People disappeared and no trace of them could be found. Ghasiram was suspected, but Nana Fadnavis refused to listen to complaints, apparently absurd from their unexampled atrocity." I do not think that Ghasiram's case reflects any discredit on the administration in general.

19. Forbes on Ghasiram's case :

It appears from a contemporary English account that there was not a tithe of evidence against Ghasiram, and he was an unfortunate victim of undeserved suspicion. According to Forbes, who derived his information from no less a personage than Sir Charles Malet, the mob was encouraged "by many persons desirous of

mortifying the ruling minister through the ignominy of the cutwal his dependant." The Peshwa weakly surrendered the 'foreigner' into the hands of an infuriated mob that subjected the Kotwal to all sorts of humiliation and finally stoned him to death.⁴⁸

The officers of Indian Police in those days were not without their faults, and we cannot say that supervision by English officers has absolutely purged that department of corruption even now. About thirty years ago, a Brahman officer of Bengal Police was accused and convicted of an offence, which would make Ghasiram blush and cry shame. That does not prove any neglect of supervision on the part of the higher authorities. Abuse there was, but it seldom assumed such a serious character as to be accounted a great public danger. Elphinstone remarks, "The Police however was good on the whole, murder or robberies attended with violence and alarm were very rare; and I have never heard any complaints of the insecurity of property."

Baji Rao II, weak and wicked as he was, did much for the improvement of the police. A special officer called *Tapasnavis* was appointed by him for general supervision and inspection of the police force. They were quite independent

⁴⁸ Forbes, *Oriental Memories*, Vol. II, p. 135. The full account of the affair will be found in a letter published in the 9th volume of *Aitihāsik Lekha Sangraha* by Vasudev Shastri Khare.

of the Mamlatdars and their jurisdiction did not always coincide with revenue districts.

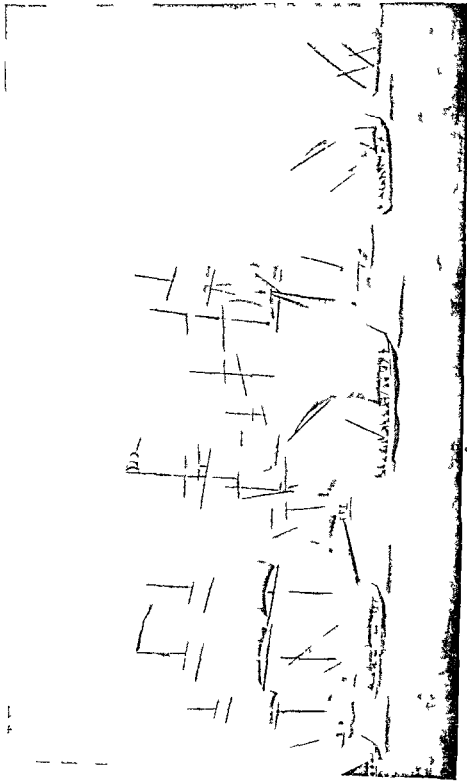
20. *The Metropolitan Police :*

The Metropolitan Police at Poona became a model body during the administration of the last of the Peshwas. The efficiency and honesty of this body had extorted the applause of critics like Elphinstone and Tone. William Henry Tone served in the army of Baji Rao II, and he had first-hand knowledge of the Peshwa's Government. His remarks therefore claim our best regards. Tone says, "It is little remarkable for anything but its excellent Police which alone employs thousand men. After the firing of the gun, which takes place at ten at night, no person can appear in the streets without being taken up by the Patroles, and detained prisoner until dismissed in the morning by the Kotwal. So strict is the discipline observed that the Peshwa himself had been kept prisoner a whole night for being out at improper hours." No less than Rs. 9,000, Elphinstone tells us, were spent for the upkeep of this splendid body consisting of a large number of peons, horse patrols and Ramoshis. Lt. Edward Moor and his brother officers visited Poona in 1792 and they heard that the police of Poona was "uncommonly well regulated."⁴⁹

⁴⁹ Moor, *A Narrative of the Operations of Captain Little's Detachment* (London 1794), p. 364.

We cannot say that the London police of the time was as efficient as the Poona police, before its reorganisation by Peel. Sir Spencer Walpole says, "There was no efficient police force in London. A small horse patrol nominally guarded the suburbs; a small foot patrol nominally guarded the metropolis. The horse patrol consisted of only fifty-four, the foot patrol of only one hundred men. The peace of London, otherwise, depended on the parish constables in the day time, on the old watch at night. The ingenuity of man could have hardly devised a feebler protection."

The Maratha institutions, compared branch by branch with those of contemporary Europe, cannot fail to extort our admiration by superiority and excellence in many cases.



An English Ship attacked by the Marathas

CHAPTER IX

OTHER ASPECTS OF ADMINISTRATION

Before concluding we may take a passing notice of the Navy and Army of the Peshwas; a fuller treatment, however, will be reserved for some other place. We may also have a cursory glance at the condition of education in Maharashtra, and the postal system and how it was conducted by the indigenous rulers of the Bombay Presidency before the introduction of the British rule.

1. *The Navy:*

The Maratha was more familiar with the rugged hills of his native land than with the stormy sea that washed its broken coast. But the genius of Shivaji had early perceived the importance of naval power not only as an effective arm of war, but also as an instrument for the extension of oversea trade. Scott Waring says, "Sevajee in his irregular incursions into the Konkan had beheld with admiration the powerful settlements, for so they must have appeared to him, which had been formed upon the coast. He aspired to participate in so profitable a

commerce and while spreading his ravages throughout Konkan found leisure to add to the fortifications of Rajapoor, Seven-droog and Colaba. And again 'Sevajee from the commencement of his power had justly estimated the value of the maritime possessions and the greater part of his attention had been directed to the attainment of so desirable an object. The completion of his plans was entrusted to Moropant his principal minister'. Although he had enough to do on land, he succeeded in organising a fleet, and a Muhammadan officer was placed in charge of Shivaji's navy. It accomplished very little excepting some fighting with the Siddis. In 1670 a large Portuguese ship was captured near Daman by the Maratha fleet ..

The Maratha naval power saw its zenith under the Angrias, but as they were practically independent of the Peshwas, the Angria's fleet does not fall within the scope of this work. Under the Peshwas the navy formed a regular department. It had its headquarters at Vijayadurg and Bassein, and the revenue of several Mahals was granted for the naval establishment. We shall here notice two points only in connection with the naval policy of the Peshwas.

Long before the birth of Admiral Mahan the Peshwas had realised the necessity of the growth of a commercial navy for the development of naval power and we actually find Balaji Baji

Rao seriously thinking of employing trained sailors of merchantmen in times of war on an increased pay,¹ and Madhava Rao II enlisted fifty private Mahagiris in 1774-75.² And although the principle of using hereditary officers or Darakhdars as a check upon their official superiors was at first used in the administration of naval affairs, it had to be given up in recognition of the necessity of undivided command and guidance in the navy. The principle, however, was not abandoned all at once. In a letter of Madhava Rao I (1765-66) to Admiral Ananda Rao Dhulap we find the first recognition of the necessity of undivided command. Madhava Rao I did not recall the Darakhdars of the navy but he appointed Jagannath Narayan the civil head of the navy to supervise and control the work of the Darakhdars on a salary of Rs. 2,000 a year. While the Admiral (*Subhedar* of the *Armar*) was the military head of the navy, the Amin was its civil head; and he was generally responsible for such work as accounts, muster-roll, purchase of provision, etc. It is noteworthy that in this letter mention is made of the naval power of the Europeans. "The Europeans are hostile at sea and negligent men should be removed and really good men should be procured."³

¹ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 186-87.

² P. D., Vol. VI, p. 194.

³ P. D., Vol. IX, pp. 340-341.

In 1781-82 the second Madhava Rao recalled the Darakh-dars of the navy, as admiral Ananda Rao Dhulap could not pull on well with them, and the entire charge of the navy was entrusted to Dhulap.⁴ The letter conveying the above order, instructs Ananda Rao to fit out 19 ships, 3 pals, 3 ghurabs and 13 gallibats, for an expedition

The Maratha fleet was generally employed for checking piracy, collecting Zakat from merchant-men coming to and going from Maratha ports, and also for taking possession of wrecks within territorial water. These last belonged as a right to the Peshwa's government, but the English had obtained an exemption by treaty for their own ships as well as for ships belonging to merchants of Bombay. Sovereignty over territorial sea was therefore recognised and exercised. The Admiral granted passports to merchant-men sailing within his jurisdiction.

2 *Salary of Naval Officers.*

During the administration of Balaji Bajirao the annual salary of the Admiral was Rs 1,186 in addition to grain measuring 16½ maunds, while the petty officers and sailors got the following pay

Sar Tandel	Rs 10	per month
Tandel	Rs 7-8	„ „
Sailor	... Rs 4-8 to 5	„ „

Some food allowance in kind was also given in addition to money salary, the amount varying with the rank of the man.⁵

The officers and sailors of the navy were suitably rewarded by the Peshwas for good services in war. Madhava Rao I distributed Rs. 4,250 among officers and sailors of the navy for their services in a war against Haidar Ali. Three officers Damaji Naik Kuveskar, Shivaji Rao Surve and Vithoji Naik Bamvkar got Rs. 300, Rs. 250 and Rs. 200 respectively. Balaji Hari Fadnis received Rs. 500, and Serangs and sailors got Rs. 3,000 in all.⁶

The Angrias and other Maratha naval leaders have often been charged with piracy for capturing and detaining vessels of friendly nations that did not sail with their *dastak* or permit. This however was not regarded as an act of piracy by the Marathas. They were not a little guided by Portuguese precedents in their naval affairs, and the Portuguese deemed it necessary to assert their sovereignty of the sea by compelling every vessel to seek and carry their *Cartaz*. Not only merchants of friendly nation but friendly potentates like the Sultan of Bijapur and the King of Canara had to secure the previous permission of the Portuguese government before sending their ships on a voyage in the Indian

⁵ P. D., Vol. III, pp. 185-187.

⁶ P. D., Vol. IX, p. 344.

Ocean The merchants had to pay a fee, which varied according to the capacity of their ships, and to acknowledge the Portuguese right of search before they could obtain a Cartaz In a letter addressed to the Siddi of Janjira on the 16th of December 1715 the Portuguese Viceroy pompously asserted 'There is no prince in Asia who is not aware that the Most High and Powerful King of Portugal is the sovereign of the Indian seas and the same is acknowledged by the Great Moghul King and the Magnificent King of Persia inasmuch as their vessels take *Cartazes* and observe all the conditions mentioned therein'' In another letter addressed to the Siddi fifteen years earlier the Portuguese government had emphasised the same principle by saying, "the Portuguese are the sovereigns of seas and not pirates" The Marathas could and did advance the same argument⁹ Moreover, it should not be forgotten that the merchantmen captured by the Portuguese or the Marathas were not necessarily unarmed or unprotected From the *Cartazes* published in Biker's monumental collection, it appears that some of the merchantmen that sought and got *Cartazes* were well armed A ghurab of Govind Das Vana a Gujrat merchant, for instance carried nine pieces of artillery¹⁰ It

⁹ Reis Visinhos Tomo VII fols 26 & 27

⁹ Reis Visinhos Tomo IV fol 28

⁹ For a fuller discussion see Sen *Historical Records at Goa*

¹⁰ Biker Vol IV pp 186 188

is therefore clear that they deliberately defied a power claiming sovereignty of the sea when they omitted to procure its Cartaz or *dastak*, and if they suffered in consequence they had very little reason to complain.

3. *The Army:*

Shivaji's followers were nearly all of them natives of Maharashtra. There was a sprinkling of Muhammadan soldiers and officers in his army, but on the whole it was composed of homogeneous elements capable of being inspired with common ideals and common interests. The great Maratha leader had a distrust for feudal levies, his officers and men were paid directly by him and he carefully refrained from creating fresh fiefs. The Peshwas, on the other hand, relied mainly on feudal forces and divided the whole of the Maratha Empire into a number of military Jagirs. The Sardars or feudal Barons on their part sublet a part of their fiefs to some of their favourites and subordinates in lieu of military service and sub-infeudation resulted with all its concomitant evils. The feudal chiefs were more attentive to their own interests and were absolutely incapable of taking a broad view of the imperial interests. This was the real cause of the interminable civil wars that characterised the closing years of the Maratha Empire. Sindhia was a Sardar of the Peshwa and was

in theory bound to render him military service whenever necessary. Khande Rao Hari, better known as Appa Khande Rao, held his fief of the Sindhia and owed his allegiance to him. George Thomas, an Irish adventurer, received his Jagir from Khande Rao Hari and was expected to serve him loyally and faithfully. But Daulat Rao Sindhia did not hesitate to impose his authority on his master the Peshwa, Khande Rao Hari was equally prepared to wage a war against his immediate feudal over lord and master the Sindhia and George Thomas, a foreigner, naturally cared more for his own interests than for his master's welfare. If the feudal lords felt inclined sometimes to fight against the Peshwa, it is no wonder that they were frequently engaged against their neighbours and fellow chiefs. This was detrimental to the solidarity and unity of the empire to which they all belonged and which they were supposed to serve. But unfortunately this was not the only defect of the Maratha military system.

4. *Employment of Foreigners* .

Shivaji generally enlisted in his army Marathas of his own race, but in the Peshwa's army were employed men of all races, religions and creeds. Rajputs, Sikhs, Rohillas, Sindhis, Gossains, Karnatakis, Arabs, Abyssinians, Telingas, Bedars and Christian and Shenvi subjects of the

Portuguese Government were all welcomed by the Peshwa and his tenants-in-chief. And when conflict with European powers brought home to them the superiority of western discipline and military science, English, French, Portuguese, German, Swiss, Italian, American and Armenian adventurers were eagerly employed. They (had no common interest with their employers) and the interests of the English officers in the Maratha service were often opposed to those of the state they served. Their intimate knowledge of the country and its defence was therefore used against their former masters when war broke out between the Marathas and the English. (Writing about the easy capture of the strong fortress of Koel or A'lighar, Thorn remarks—"It should here be observed that the achievement was materially facilitated by the loyal and gallant conduct of Mr. Lucan, a British officer, who had lately quitted the service of Scindiah, to avoid fighting against his country. On joining our army he undertook to lead Colonel Monson to the gate, and point out the road through the fort, which he effected in such a manner as to gain the particular thanks of the commander-in-chief, and the public acknowledgments of the government." ¹¹ It was probably to prevent such a betrayal of military secrets that Jaswant Rao

¹¹ Thorn, *Memoir of the Campaigns in Hindoostan* p. 99.

Holkar cruelly murdered Majors Vickers, Dodd and Ryan, when they refused to serve against their countrymen. It was natural and honourable on the part of English soldiers to stand by their countrymen in India, but even the French employees in the Maratha army could not always be relied on in a war against the English as Daulat Rao discovered to his cost when Perron and most of his compatriots made their terms with the British government and retired to British territories leaving the trained battalions of Sindhia to be led by their native officers.

It should be noted here that Shivaji had some Portuguese officers in his army.¹² But what exactly was their duty and on what terms they had been employed we do not know. A number of European adventurers had also found employment in the fleet of the celebrated Kanhoji Angria,¹³ long before Mahadaji Sindhia thought of engaging de Boigne. But it should not be forgotten that tempting as the terms offered by the Indian princes were they seldom attracted European officers of real ability. With the exception of de Boigne and Raymond there was not perhaps a single European officer in the Indian armies who could boast of a sound education and military training. Most of them were adventurers of a low type without any

¹² Biker, Vol. IV, p. 120. Sen, *Historical Records at Goa*, p. 9.

¹³ Downing,

character, as Colonel Skinner tersely observed and he had reasons to know ¹⁴ Perron and George Thomas were runaway sailors, but they did not belong properly speaking to the Peshwa's army. The account that Moor gives of Mr. Yvon, who commanded a corps in the service of the Peshwa, is hardly complimentary to the judgment and choice of his employers, if he was the type of the European officers employed by the Poona authorities. Lt. Moor writes of him—

“As this gentleman's history is very little, indeed not at all known it will be interesting to many of this detachment to hear some account of him. His name was Evans, and the last place in which he was known by it was at Vellore, where he was quarter-master sergeant of a troop of cavalry of the Madras establishment. At that time which must be twelve or more years previous to his death, he had with him a European woman, supposed to be his wife, who being expert in the art of making pastry, as Evans was at fencing, they lived very comfortably on the profits of their several employments. At length, in consequence of a dispute with his superior, Evans and wife left Vellore clandestinely, and were never more heard of by his corps until the time of which we are now speaking. His employment for several years is not known, but after a considerable

¹⁴ Memoir of Skinner.

lapse of time, we find him in an inferior station in the corps that he latterly commanded. In a former war between the Mahrattas and Tippoo, we believe it was at the siege of Badamy his gallantry and good conduct were so conspicuous, that a vacancy happening, he was appointed to command the corps, and his former companion being dead, he married a native Christian, it appears chiefly from gratitude, for attentions and kindnesses to him when wounded and on other occasions." ¹⁵ We are further informed by Moor that the dues of Evans from the Poona government amounted to forty thousand Rupees at the time of his death. What his pay was we do not know, and as the Maratha government was very irregular in its payment, the sum, most probably, represented more than 12 month's salary.

Evans had under him about fifty Europeans of different nationalities. He served in the Peshwa's army during the administration of Madhava Rao II. His successor Baji Rao II was more fortunate in his European officers. He appointed Colonel J. R. Boyd, an American, to command a regiment of trained infantry, the numerical strength of which was 1,683.

One of Boyd's colleagues in the Peshwa's service was William Henry Tone, brother of the

¹⁵ Moor, *A Narrative of the Operations of Captain Little's Detachment*, pp. 26. 27

famous Irish rebel, Theobald Wolfe Tone, who had like his American commander served in the Nizam's army before joining the Peshwa's forces. The European adventurers who came to India changed their masters very frequently. A monthly account of the salary expenses of Boyd's Regiment has been published in the fifth volume of the Peshwas' Diaries.¹⁰ Boyd is there wrongly described as Mr. Bight, an Englishman. His regiment of trained infantry cost the Peshwa Rs. 26,242 a month and the officers and men were paid at the following rate :

Colonel Boyd	...	Rs. 3,000.
2 Captains	...	Rs. 900 at the rate of Rs. 450 each.
4 Lieutenants	...	Rs. 1,000 at the rate of Rs. 250 each.
3 Sergeants	...	Rs. 270 at the rate of Rs. 90 each.
14 Subhedars	...	Rs. 700 at the rate of Rs. 50 each.
2 Kumedans(?)	...	Rs. 160 at the rate of Rs. 80 each.
59 Havalgars	...	Rs. 1,050 (54) at the rate of Rs. 18 per head and (4) at the rate of Rs. 15 each.
38 Naiks	...	Rs. 460 at the rate of Rs. 12 (36) men and Rs. 14 (2 men) each.

¹⁰ P. D., Vol. V. pp. 184-187.

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6 Tambarchis ¹⁷ Rs. 120 at the rate of Rs. 20 each.

6 Pipers ... Rs. 150 at the rate of Rs. 20 each.

2 Cymbals beaters Rs. 40 at the rate of Rs. 20 each.

5 Standard bearers ... Rs. 60 at the rate of Rs. 12 each.

7 Drummers ... Rs. 84 at the rate of Rs. 12 each.

3 Karkuns (clerks) Rs. 120 at the rate of Rs. 40 early.

14 Bhistis (water carriers) ... Rs. 84 at the rate of Rs. 6 each.

6 Torch bearers Rs. 36 at the rate of Rs. 6 each.

7 Scouts ... Rs. 49 at the rate of Rs. 7 each.

2 Shield bearers Rs. 12 at the rate of Rs. 6 each.

Artillery:

8 Portuguese ... Rs. 480 at the rate of Rs. 60 each.

2 Jamadars ... Rs. 60 at the rate of Rs. 30 each.

2 Havaldars ... Rs. 36 at the rate of Rs. 18 each.

42 Golandaz ... Rs. 504 at the rate of Rs. 12 each.

¹⁷ The beater of a Tambura or small Turkish guiter.

5 Karkuns	...	Rs. 200 at Rs. 40 each.
4 Torchbearers		Rs. 24 at Rs. 6 each.
1 Jamadar of		
Sowars	...	Rs. 55.
15 Sowars	...	Rs. 525 at Rs. 35 each.

Artillery.

6 Havaldars	...	Rs. 108 at Rs. 18 each.
24 Golandaz	...	Rs. 288 at Rs. 12 each.
12 Khalasis	...	Rs. 120 at Rs. 10 each.
2 Daruwalas	...	Rs. 60 at Rs. 30 each.

(Powder suppliers)

2 Chaudharis	...	Rs. 20 at Rs. 10 each.
7 Carters	...	Rs. 49 at Rs. 7 each.
8 Beldars	...	Rs. 64 at Rs. 8 each.
3 Tabeldars	...	Rs. 27 at Rs. 9 each.

1 Jamadar who super-
pervises the work-
shop ... Rs. 30.

7 Blacksmiths		Rs. 77 at Rs. 11 each.
4 Chambhars	...	Rs. 24 at Rs. 6 each.

(leather workers)

2 Karkuns

Ramchandra Krishna	} Rs. 300 at the rate of
Apaji Chimnaji	
	Rs. 150 each.

Grand Total Rs. 26,242.

It is needless to say that the native Maratha officers or Jagirdars were not so well paid. Mahipat Rao Kavde was granted in the year

1762-63 a Saranjam of Rs. 6,25,000 for maintaining a force of 2,500 Sowars. His salary including all sorts of allowance was fixed at Rs. 25,000 a year while Boyd was appointed thirty-three years later on a salary of Rs. 36,000 a year though the Regiment he commanded was much smaller. Of course the feudal chief generally managed to make more than a legitimate profit by avoiding his legal obligations, but we should not forget that a horseman did as a rule get a better salary than his brother in the infantry. The Portuguese officers in the Peshwa's employ were also more liberally treated. In 1789-90 a Portuguese soldier called "Musa Almel" (?) was appointed to the command of a small unit of twenty-five men and he received a monthly salary of Rs. 155. The Indians serving under him got Rs. 9 only per month, while their native Christian and Portuguese colleagues got Rs. 15 and Rs. 25 respectively.

5. *The Arabs :*

Of the Asiatics in the Maratha army the most favoured, so far as pay was concerned, were the Arabs. Baji Rao II had a large number of these foreigners in his army as we are informed by men like Blacker and Prinsep who had opportunities to know. Blacker tells us that "Every substantive Native Power

had a portion of these troops." ¹⁹ And Prinsep writes : ²⁰ "It may be proper to mention, as a proof of the estimation in which the Arabs are held as soldiers by the native powers, the rate of pay they received in the Peshwa's army in comparison with natives of other countries.

Arabs, natives of Arabia... 15 Rupees a month.
Their descendants born in

the country ... 10 Rupees a month.

Hindoostanees (the same

as our sepoy) ... 8 Rupees a month.

Mahrattas and Dukhunees 6 Rupees a month."

This certainly betrays a most deplorable state of things. A state that looks towards foreigners for its defence and relies on foreign mercenaries in times of war can hardly be considered a stable one. For the foreign mercenaries, who constituted the majority of the Maratha infantry, both trained and untrained, could be inspired by one motive only, *viz.*, that of self-aggrandisement. It is noteworthy that most of the murderers of the young Peshwa, Narayan Rao belonged to this class. Tone, who had personal knowledge of the Pardesis, gave them the worst possible character. "(They are more soldiers of fortune," he wrote, "and serve only for their pay: they migrate from Hindustan to

¹⁹ Blacker, p. 21.

²⁰ Prinsep, Vol. II, p. 160.

the Deckan for service where they are called Pardesis or strangers : they have no idea of patriotism or love of their country, but would plunder their native village without pang”

When exactly these foreigners first found their way into the Maratha army we do not know. There is documentary evidence that some Arabs were employed on a salary of Rs. 11 per month as early as 1742 during the administration of Balaji Baji Rao.²¹ It was probably when the Marathas first established their authority on the northern banks of the Nurbudda that the necessity of a strong body of infantry was for the first time felt for the reduction of forts and strongholds in that quarter. And as the Marathas as a rule preferred to serve in the cavalry, foreigners like Rajputs, Sikhs, Rohillas, Sindhis and Arabs had to be recruited for this new service and to induce them to enlist in large numbers attractive terms had to be offered.

6. *The Cavalry :*

Before the introduction of the European methods in the Maratha army its main strength lay in the cavalry. The Peshwa maintained his personal force or Khasgi paga and the whole country was divided among Saranjamis or Jagirdars on military tenure. According to a paper

²¹ P. D., Vol. III, p. 165.

published in the Kavyetihas Sangraha the principal Maratha leaders received Jagirs to the value mentioned against their name for maintaining a stipulated number of Sowars (horsemen).

	Sowars.	For a Jagir of
Malhar Rao Holkar ...	22,000	95 lakhs.
Ananda Rao Pawar ...	15,000	45 „
Patwardhans :		
Chintaman Pandurang and Gangadhar Govind	3,000	11 „
Parshuram Ramchandra	1,500	6½ „
Kurundvadkar ...	300	2½ „
Pratinidhi ...	5,000	14 „
Rastia ...	3,000	21 „
Ghorpade of Mudhol ...	800	4 „
Panse ...	Artillery	3½ „
Throat ...	500	1¼ „
Bhapkar ...	150	60 thous.
Nana Fadnavis ...	700	4½ lakhs.
Tryambakrao Pethe ...	1,200	7½ „
Raja of Akalkot ...	1,000	4½ „
Sultan Rao ...	500	1½ „
Purandare ...	300	2,32,000

The paper need not be quoted in full. It is noteworthy that while the Holkar enjoyed a Jagir of 95 lakhs for maintaining a force of 22,000 horse, Ananda Rao Pawar got a Jagir

of 45 lakhs only for a force of 15 thousand. The Saranjami was usually a man of approved service and wide military experience. He was informed how many horsemen he was expected to bring to the field. In his Sanad his personal allowance including all usual items was clearly mentioned as well as the salary he was to pay to each of his Sowar. This varied from Rs. 250 to Rs. 300 a year. He was also expected to look after the civil administration of his Jagir and to provide for its agricultural improvement. The clerical work of the army under him was done by a number of Darakhbars appointed by the Peshwa, but paid out of the Jagir of the Saranjami or fief holder. Thus in the Sanad granted to Mahipat Rao Kavde in 1762-63 we read that he was to employ the undermentioned civil officers at the following annual salary²² :—

		Rs. per year.
Diwan 5,000
Khasnis 5,000
Fadnis 950
Sabnis 400
Daftardar 500
Chitnis 400
Parasnis 250
Jamdar 300
Potnis 400

²² P.D., Vol. IX, pp. 310-314.

The incumbents of these offices were all mentioned by name and Mahipatrao was expected to bring his force for a general muster each year and to receive an acknowledgment after the Sowars had been counted.

The Shiledars obtained an advance called *Nalbandi* for preliminary expenses and we learn from a document of Balaji Baji Rao's time that horses were divided into three classes according to their price. "A horse worth Rs. 400 should be classed as superior, that worth Rs. 200 as middling and that worth Rs. 100 as inferior. Any horse worth less than Rs. 100 should not be counted in the muster. A horse classed as superior but having a bad rider should not be counted in the muster."²³

A cavalry regiment was generally served by a number of attendants, and that under Ranoji Bhonsle had no less than 5 Karkuns and 181 attendants though its fighting strength was 700. There were in this regiment, 9 Rikibdars (stirrup holders), 5 Farriers, 8 Camel-drivers, 4 Khijmatgars, 3 Musicians, 2 Scouts, 5 Kothavales (store-keepers), 2 Jamdars (wardrobe keepers), 13 Bhois (palanquin-bearers) 2 Saddlers, 1 Washerman, 2 Macebearers, 1 Leather-worker, 1 Sweeper, 2 Drummers, 4 Messengers, 1 Torch-bearer, 1 Barber, 1 Tailor, 7 Water-carriers, 2 Sunshade-bearers, 2 Trumpeters,

²³ P. D., Vol. III, p. 183, Parasnis's Summary.

4 Mahatgadkaris (elephant drivers) 1 Potdar, and 99 Grooms. These non-combatants were paid very little by the Peshwas' government and there is reason to believe that they were not very regularly paid, for the army was always in arrears and the Peshwa and his chief officers were frequently subjected to *Dharna*, an extreme form of dunning, by the discontented soldiers.

In granting Saranjam the Peshwas took care to place rival chiefs in the same area and to make some use of their mutual jealousy. Govind Pant Bundele, the founder of the Sagar family, was used as a check on the Bhonsla of Nagpur. The revenue of Malwa was divided among the Sindhia, the Holkar and the Pawar, the Peshwa retaining a share for himself. Thus the grant of Saranjams in conquered territories stimulated the spirit of conquest, and the division of the revenue was calculated by the Peshwa to check any undue increase of the Sardars' power, and at the same time to secure co-operation by unity of interest. But the Peshwas failed to secure the last result. For Sardars like Sindhia and Holkar grew more and more powerful, and although grave national dangers rallied them to the Peshwa's side, the feudal tendency and individual jealousy ultimately led to the disruption of the empire. The Sindhia fought against the Holkar, the Bhonsla of Nagpur levied *Ghasdana* on the Peshwas' subjects, and

constant war resulted in public insecurity. This was the real source of weakness of the Maratha empire

7. A career open to all :

One point however should be noted here. In the Maratha army, a career was open to every man of ability, and every soldier carried a Marshal's baton in his knapsack, and many Sardars, like Napoleon's generals, rose from very low position. Says an English writer about Napoleon's Marshals, "Those men who under the Emperor are the greatest in the country have been the one a waiter, the next a wine-smuggler, the next a cooper of barrels, and the next a house painter. Those are the trades which gave us Murat, Massena, Ney and Lannes" Of the Maratha Sardars Ranoji Sindhia was the slipper-bearer of the Peshwa, Malhar Rao Holkar was a goatherd, Govindpant Bundele, a cook. Balaji Vishvanath, the founder of the Peshwa family, was a village clerk and the ancestor of the Ramdurgkars was a domestic servant. Fate Sing, Raja of Akalkot, can be regarded as a foundling. This similarity between the French army under Napoleon I and the Maratha army under the Peshwas, however, is extremely superficial. The latter lacked the solidarity and discipline that characterised the former.

Darakhdars held their hereditary office in the army of Saranjamis as a check upon them. But as the Saranjams were generally hereditary, this method proved of little effect.

8. *The Pendharis :*

The policy of the Maratha rulers accentuated the hardships of war instead of mitigating it. Over and above the regular soldiers, Pendharis in large number were allowed to accompany the army on every expedition,—in return of a tax called *Palpatti*. These Pendharis were authorised robbers, and plunder was their only profession. They shared their spoils with the government (the tax amounted to 25 p. c. of their booty) and had no consideration for their friends or fellow-countrymen. Sometimes even Hindu temples were not spared. One instance of their sacrilegious depredation will suffice. Nilkanth Appaji wrote to Bala Saheb of Miraj on the 23rd April of 1791 during the second expedition against Tipu:—"The Lamans and Pendharis of Dada Saheb's army plundered the temple of Shri Shankaracharya at Shringeri, and took elephants and other property worth several lakhs of rupees in all; and yesterday brought their spoils to a place about two miles from the camp."²³ When Shri Shankaracharya's

²³ Khare, *Aitihāsik Lekhaṃ Sangraha*, Vol. IX, p. 4474.

temple was not secure from the Pendharis of the Peshwa's army, we may easily guess what little security private property of ordinary people had. The Brahmans were sometimes protected by Sardars of high position, but we do not think that their protection had much effect against these professional robbers. The Siddis of Janjira also sent "*chortas*" or authorised thieves to rob the Peshwa's subjects, and although these were ruthlessly punished when caught, the Peshwa's government could afford but little protection against depredations of the feudal army. This, and not the corruption of the Maratha officers, was the weakest point in the Maratha government. The whole situation has been so nicely summarised by Tone, that an extract from his letter will bear quotation here. "In a country such as this where revolutions are so common, the great spur to industry, that of security is taken away; the Rayat who cultivates his grounds this year, is by no means sure of possessing them the next, or if he should, it is highly probable that in a Government that holds its supremacy only by sword, some large detachment may be quartered by the neighbourhood; than which a greater blow cannot be given to industry; for a Maratha army are more indefatigable and destructive than myriads of locusts. The property of friends and enemies falls equally a prey to their indistinguishing depredations.

Hence it is that no man raises more than barely serves him and the produce of the year is just equivalent to its consumption."

We will again turn to the army. When wounded the men and officers were well attended to and rewarded. When killed in action, their children if of age were taken into the Peshwa's service, if minor, enjoyed a liberal pension until they should come of age and enter the army. Higher officers were encouraged by grant of Saranjam, Jaripatka, and similar honours. Some of the government "Kurans" or grasslands were set aside for the cavalry, and village artisans like the Chambhar, the Lohar and the Sutar were sometimes requisitioned for professional work in the cavalry. When disciplined battalions officered by Europeans came into fashion, the Peshwa also decided to maintain two battalions. These battalions or *kampus* did not lag behind their undisciplined brethren in the matter of plunder. The depredation committed by a *kampu* under one Dalton Saheb is mentioned in more than one letter.^{23a}

9. Forts :

The Maratha forts were in the Peshwa days of the same primitive type as in the time of Shivaji. "In the art of fortification," Blacker observes, "the Natives of India are still less advanced. In this country, it is in the same

state as it was in Europe before the introduction of the regular systems. Even though some judicious works have been constructed by European engineers for Indian powers, they appear to have neither imitated the example nor appreciated its superiority. They place their reliance more in a strong profile than in a judicious plan" As a consequence, impregnable as these strongholds appeared to the Indian armies, they could offer but little resistance to the superior military science of the west.

Generally, the revenue of some villages was granted for maintaining these forts and their garrison. The pay of an ordinary soldier serving in a fort was about seven Rupees and he was paid for eleven months only though he was expected to serve for twelve months. When he lived in the fort with his family, he got an extra allowance. The pay of the Sabnis, the Karkhannis, the Havaldar and the Sarnobat varied with the importance of the fort under their charge. In the year 1763-64 the Havaldar and the Sarnobat of Fort Bahula got Rs. 125 each per year while the Sabnis and the Fadnis were paid at the rate of Rs. 200; the Subhedar got Rs. 250 per year. The Havaldars of Chawand and Ahmadnagar, however, got Rs. 360 and 300 respectively.

As in the days of Shivaji no officer enjoyed undivided supreme authority in the fort. Surety was, as before, taken at the time of enlisting the

garrison as well as the officers. The salary of the Karkhannis was so low that we learn from a letter of Balaji Baji Rao's time that in 1750-51 the Karkhannis of fort Trigodi found it impossible to serve on the old pay and he was replaced by a new man on a higher salary, *viz.*, Rs. 100 a year.²⁴

All the important forts were furnished with some pieces of artillery, the heavy guns were cleaned once a year and the smaller pieces more frequently.²⁵ There was also a Darukhana or magazine as well as an Ambarkhana or granary in each fort. Old grains were sold out at intervals at the market price and new grains were stored. Towards the close of the Peshwa period the Arabs were largely employed for garrisoning the more important forts of the Maratha empire. Sir Thomas Munro tells us that some small strongholds in the Karnatak were garrisoned by hereditary servants enjoying rent-free land in lieu of their service. Their commander alone was appointed by the state, such an arrangement, it is superfluous to say, could not be conducive to discipline or efficiency.

10. *The Artillery :*

The artillery formed a separate department and was generally manned and officered by the

²⁴ P. D., Vol. III, p. 191.

²⁵ P. D., Vol. III, p. 191.

Portuguese and Indian Christians. The pay of an ordinary Portuguese gunner varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 per month during the administration of Balaji Baj Rao as a letter addressed to Shripat Rao Bapuji²⁶ in 1753-54 shows: "The following artillerymen are sent to you. They should be paid on the first day of each month at the following rate :

Joki (Joachim ?) Rs. 30.

Manik (Manuk ?) Rs. 25.

Pharasis Rudrak (Francisco Rodrigues?)
Rs. 12-8.

Jacob Rujel (Rozario?) Rs. 12-8.

Malakmalkar(?) Rs. 15.

Manvel (Manoel ?) Rs. 15."

The Peshwas had their own factories for manufacturing cannons and cannon balls. Captain William Gordon writes on June 30th, 1739 : " I visited the foundry, where I saw many coehorns and bomb shells said to have been cast there, and a form of a thirteen-inch mortar. I was told they make such with great ease, and have learned the art of running iron for making shot." ²⁷ Tone says of Sindhia's firelocks, " His are very excellent ones far superior to the ordinary European arms to be met with in the Bazars." A cannon-ball factory was established at Ambegavan near Votur in Prant

²⁶ P. D, Vol. III, p. 177.

²⁷ Forrest, Maratha Series, Vol. I, p. 97.

Junnar in 1765-66 and a new factory was established at Poona four years later for manufacturing cannons. Unfortunately the Marathas relied mainly on the English and the Portuguese for the supply of artillery and munitions. Maratha officers were often commissioned to purchase these from Bombay²⁸ while the Portuguese undertook to supply the Peshwa with artilleries of the latest type.²⁹

Lt. Moor was of opinion that the park of artillery was more of a source of weakness than strength to a Maratha army on march. The following account of the park of artillery from the pen of Major Dirom is of very great interest: "The park of artillery, where all their guns are collected, made an extraordinary appearance. The gun-carriages, in which they trust to the solidity of the timber, and use but little iron in their construction, are clumsy beyond belief; particularly the wheels, which are low, and formed of large solid pieces of wood united. The guns are of all sorts and dimensions; and having the names of their gods given to them, are painted in the most fantastic manner; and many of them, held in esteem for the services they are said to have already performed for the state, cannot now be dispensed with, although in every respect unfit for use. Were the guns even serviceable, the small supply of ammunition

with which they are provided has always effectually prevented the Maratha artillery from being formidable to their enemies. * On a marching day, the guns move off soon after daylight the guns and tumbrels, sufficiently unwieldy without further burden, are so heaped with stores and baggage that there does not seem to be any idea of its ever being necessary to unlimber, and prepare for action on the march. As there are no pioneers attached to the Maratha artillery to repair the roads, this deficiency is compensated by an additional number of cattle, there being sometimes a hundred or a hundred and fifty bullocks, in a string of pairs to one gun." ³⁰ The European officers who saw the Maratha artillery in operation had all of them a very poor opinion of the men who served it.

The artillery department had also its contingent of Darakh-dars as the Sabnis and the Fadnis for its account and clerical work.

Space will not permit a more detailed treatment of the Maratha military system here, but it will not be out of place to take note of one significant change in the character of the Maratha leaders. They were no longer the hardy simple warriors who could rightly call the saddle their home. When Shivaji led his army to the Carnatak he had with him only two rough small tents, one for himself and the

³⁰ Dirom, *A Narrative of the Campaign in India, 1792*, pp. 11-12.

other for his ministers. But the Maratha chiefs who accompanied Sadashiv Rao to the fatal field of Panipat needed like the Mughal officers of Aurangzib costly tents, splendid equipments and comforts and luxuries of all sorts. Even the followers of the homeless Raghoba could not do without a certain amount of pomp and splendour. Forbes writes— "The Maratha cavaliers of distinction frequently ornament their saddles with the bushy tails of the Thibet cows, as also the horse's head. On one side an attendant carries a rich umbrella, called an aftaphgere, generally of velvet, embroidered with gold; on the other, is a man with a large fan, or chouree, formed of the tail of the wild cow from Thibet, covered with long flowing hair, delicately white, and soft as silk: the handle is gold or silver, sometimes studded with jewels..... The cruppers, martingales and bridles of the horses, are ornamented, according to the rank and wealth of the owner, with gold or silver plates, knobs, coins, and a variety of decorations: the tails of the grey horses are frequently dyed of a red and orange colour, and the manes plaited with silk and ribbands, interspersed with silver roses:..... The great men have also servants with gold and silver staves of rich workmanship running before them, called chopdars and assaburdars: a sort of heralds, who sing their praises, and proclaim their

titles in the hyperbolic style of the east. The magnificence of the Indian tents, pavilions, and summianas, or canopy far exceeds anything of the kind in Europe. The Mahrattas seem to prefer their tents to houses, and enjoy more pleasure in a camp than a city”³¹

Shivaji could not countenance the introduction of women into the camp on any account, and he had made it a capital offence. But in the Peshwa days not only the feudal chiefs but even the ordinary horsemen were accompanied by their womenfolk and dancing girls, jugglers and fakirs all flocked to the Maratha camp as a good place of business. Lt Moor writes, “The number of women with this army (Parsharam Bhau Patwardhan’s) could they be at all accurately computed, would not be believed, our estimate so far exceeds the bounds of probability, at least strangers would deem it so, that we are afraid to give it”³². In the market place or camp bazar not only necessaries of life but commodities of all descriptions found customers. “Raghoba’s encampment” Forbes informs us, “covered a space of many square miles, the bazar or market place, belonging to his own division, and to the principal generals, contained many thousand tents, where every trade and profession

³¹ Forbes Oriental Memoirs, Vol II pp 41-44

³² Moor, Little’s Detachment, p 29

was carried on with as much regularity as in a city. Goldsmiths, jewellers, bankers, drapers, druggists, confectioners, carpenters, tailors, tent-makers, corn-grinders, and farriers, found employments ; as did whole rows of silver, iron, and copper smiths ;" ³³ the bazar did not lack wine-stalls as we learn from Broughton, and votaries of Comus had no grievance. It is needless to say that the non-combatants in a Maratha army far exceeded the combatants.

The army was further encumbered by a large number of animals, deemed unnecessary in Shivaji's time. "The number and variety of cattle necessarily attendant on an Asiatic army is astonishing ;" writes a European eyewitness, "there were at least two hundred thousand in the Maratha camp of every description ; the expense of feeding these animals, as also the difficulty of procuring provender, is very great ; and their distress for water in a parched country and sultry climate, often fatal. Exclusive of the Mahratta cavalry trained to war, were many thousand horses belonging to the camp-followers ; the bazar alone required twenty thousand bullocks to convey the commodities of the shop-keepers, besides a number of small horses and asses. Some thousand camels were employed to carry the tents and baggage ; but

³³ Forbes, *Oriental Memoirs*, Vol. II, p. 48.

the elephants, proud of their distinguished elevation, were appropriated to some honourable service, or covered with caparisons of embroidered velvets and scarlet cloth, decorated with gold and silver fringe, were destined to carry the houdahs of Ragobah and his chief officers with majestic pace to join the princely retinue on state occasions " 34

This vast horde of men, women, children and cattle relied for a steady and regular supply of grains on the Brinjaras, a hardy tribe of nomads and brave carriers who plied the double trade of plunderers and corn-dealers. They did not hesitate to procure their merchandise by force when it could not be obtained by honourable purchase and were always prepared to take an active part in the military operations of their warlike customers

It is needless to say that the vast feudal army of the Peshwas could not be mobilised at a moment's notice. The Feudal chiefs were scattered all over the empire, and when an urgent summons reached them they were not always able to hasten to the Peshwa's standard. Ambitious and powerful chiefs like the Sindhia found it necessary to maintain a big army, but the lesser barons found it profitable to employ in times of peace as few horsemen as possible. The Peshwa, moreover, was unable to finance a military

expedition and the feudal chiefs had to find money for themselves. It appears that very few Maratha chiefs had a surplus or reserve fund to fall upon and on such occasions they had to rely on moneylenders. It is on this account that rich bankers like Gokul Parekh could rise to the position of Daulat Rao Sindhia's principal minister.³⁵ When the war was over the Peshwa's government had to grant fresh Jagirs to the feudal chief to pay off the debt he had incurred in the service of the state. This however led to numerous and interminable altercations between the feudal Barons and the audit officers of the Peshwa. The ultimate result was invariably an addition to the feudal chief's Jagir and consequent increase of his power. The process went on till in the closing years of the Maratha empire, the ruling Peshwa had very little power or prestige left. The personal defects of the last Peshwa did to a certain extent contribute to this result, but it was not a little due to the inherent defects of the system.

11. Postal System and Military Intelligence :

There was no regular postal department under the Peshwas. The work of military intelligence and what postal work there was, were entrusted to *Jasuds* and *Harkaras*. They were not only

³⁵ Imperial Records Nomenclature, 1814, Vol. 129, p. 107.

good runners, but intelligent men, well acquainted with roads, resourceful and brave. While on duty, public officers in villages on their way were expected to help them in their journey, and sometimes letters to that effect were addressed to the Patil and the Kulkarni. Major Broughton, a hostile critic, is very eloquent in his praise of the Harkaras. "These Hirkuras," says he, "are a most active and useful set of men. Their business is to obtain information, to act as guides, and convey letters or messages. They are always well acquainted with the country, its roads, passes through hills or across rivers and are so generally useful, that, like the ancient heralds they are looked upon as privileged, and allowed to pass unmolested where other travellers would be in the utmost danger. They are often sent to great distances, and are absent for many months, when they must necessarily be subjected to the greatest hardships, in a country where there are no inns, and when the inhabitants of many provinces subsist entirely by plunder." Sometimes the Jasuds were paid at the high rate of Rs 3 per day, they were known to cover the whole distance from Maheshwar to Delhi in thirteen days.

12 Education

Like the postal department, the Peshwas did not organise any department of public

instruction. Learning was indirectly encouraged by Dakshana grants to scholars. Originally instituted by the Dabhades, this system was continued by the Peshwas after the fall of that family. Scholars from all parts of India were attracted to Poona by this money reward, and the metropolis of the Peshwas soon became distinguished as a great seat of Sanskrit learning. Misuse of such a system however was bound to set in, and what was originally meant for scholars alone, was extended to Brahmans in general. Peshwa Madhava Rao I tried to put a check to indiscriminate distribution of Dakshana. Scott Waring says, "In the reign of the great Peshwa Madhava Rao it was ordained that the learned Pandits and Shastries should undergo an examination at the palace by the Head Pandit and should there receive gifts proportionate to their qualifications and knowledge." The last Peshwa Baji Rao II spent about four lakhs of Rupees annually in Dakshana grants. In his time indolent Brahmans, and professional beggars of that caste, again began to take a share in the Dakshana. After the annexation of the Peshwa's territories to the British dominions, Mr. Elphinstone maintained a Pathshala for imparting Sanskrit learning at Poona out of the Dakshana grant. The Pathshala no longer exists, but the grant still survives in the form of Dakshana fellowships in certain Colleges of the Bombay Presidency.

13 *Library*

The Peshwas tried to procure old manuscripts for their library and get others copied. In the year 1747-48, Balaji Baji Rao procured no less than thirty-six manuscripts of religious books from Udaipur³⁶. He also bought fifteen other manuscripts in 1755-66³⁷. In 1765-66, the first Madhava Rao granted a monthly expenditure of Rs 31 for an establishment for making copies of old books³⁸.

14 *Medicine*

The study of medicine was encouraged by grants of Inam lands to eminent physicians. They were further encouraged to distribute medicine gratis. No distinction of caste and creed was in this respect made. Among the grantees, we find mention of Hindu and Muhammadan physicians and of a Portuguese Missionary doctor³⁹. It appears that physicians also got an annual Dakshana⁴⁰.

In some respects the administrative institutions of the Peshwas were certainly as good as those of contemporary Europe, in other respects better. The temperance measures of the Peshwas were so successful that Wellington had to lay

³⁶ P. D., Vol II, pp 199-201

³⁷ P. D., Vol II, p 207

³⁸ P. D., Vol VII, pp 328-329

³⁹ P. D., Vol II, pp 129-134

⁴⁰ Peshwanchi Bakhar, p. 55

special stress on the necessity for making special arrangements for the supply of wine in a future Maratha campaign, in his Despatches. The soundness of their currency policy can also be proved by an extract from Wellington's Despatches. The attitude of the Maratha government towards the currency of the country was almost neutral; the English government tried to fix an exchange rate, and the result was described by Wellington as follows: "Much inconvenience has been occasioned in the general and regimental Bazars in consequence of the orders of Government of the 27th December relating to the exchange of money. This morning (3rd January, 1799), only one Shroff appeared in camp, and all the business of the Bazars was stopped." The Maratha officers, so much condemned by European writers for corrupt practices, were perhaps not much worse than the European officers in the Company's service. In Wellington's Despatches alone, we find that a Captain and a Lieutenant-Colonel were charged with and convicted of committing embezzlement; a Lieutenant was found guilty of purchasing a stolen horse; and two Lieutenants were convicted of committing violence in the Bazar.⁴¹

⁴¹ Also compare the following account of Portuguese misrule in San Thome (Manucci Storia Do Mogoar, ed. Irvine, Vol. III, p. 125) :—

It is patent to everybody that when the Portuguese were masters of this town (S. Thome) there were in it many oppression and much injustice. They slew one another; they dug and fortified trenches in

If we take into consideration the large sums sent home by Clive and his contemporaries, the Maratha officers' guilt will possibly appear lighter in comparison

We have already seen that the administration of revenue and justice was as efficient under the Peshwas as in contemporary England, and their spirit of toleration specially claims our notice. While in England the Roman Catholic Emancipation Act was not passed before 1829, and measures for the relief of the Jews were not taken till 1858, the Maratha rulers had accorded equal treatment to their subjects of all religions and creeds. The Muhammadans were not only eligible for high posts of the State, but hereditary Muhammadan officers like the Kazis were appointed for the benefit of their community. Not only were the old grants made by former Muhammadan kings in favour of their mosques and holy saints continued, but new Inams were granted by the Maratha rulers. In one case we actually find that the Muhammadans were allowed to pay *Hashul* at half the usual rate levied upon the Hindus.⁴² But inspite

the streets, furnishing them with cannon. Both sides had their rendezvous, and spent much money in maintaining soldiers. If any one passed carelessly down the street, they shot at him with their matchlocks. They obtained reward for their evil deeds, paying no respect even to the Holy of Holies, shooting down men during religious processions. (Other horrible details follow)

⁴² P. D., Vol. III, pp 316-319. It cannot however be asserted that no offence was ever offered to Muhammadans. Sadashiv Rao Bhau, it is

of these liberal ideas we cannot say that the Peshwa's government was better than that of contemporary England, while the people under the latter enjoyed security of life and property, the territories under the former specially suffered from a lack of it. This, we have seen, was the result of Feudalism. The Peshwas instead of checking the growth of Feudalism considerably helped its progress and development.

Instead of maintaining a strong army, independent of the feudal forces, the Peshwas became more and more dependent on the Sardars. New fiefs were granted even in the neighbourhood of Poona, and new families like the Patwardhans, the Rastias, the Vinchurkars, and the Phadkes rose in power. Even Nana F'adnavis depended on these feudal Barons for military help. These chiefs, however, were not more faithful to their master than the more powerful and older Sardars like Sindhia and Holkar. In a Despatch, dated the 19th of November, 1799, Wellington says that southern Maratha chiefs including the son of Parashram Bhau sent *Wakils* to him and to the English Agent of Mysore offering to subsidise a British force. This independent spirit was further evinced in the final struggle of the Peshwa with the English. He had made himself unpopular

alleged, demolished mosques at Nasik and built temples with their materials. Peshwanchi Bakhar, p. 52.

with the common Rayats by farming revenue and with many of the feudal nobles by confiscating their *Jagir*. They, therefore, did not stand by their ruler and chief as faithfully as they ought to have done, and Baji Rao Raghunath fell "unhonoured" "unwept" and cursed in songs.

APPENDICES TO BOOKS I AND II

A

War-Rockets.

“The war-rockets used by the Mahrattas, which very often annoyed us, is composed of an iron tube, eight or ten inches long, and near two inches in diameter; this destructive weapon is sometimes fixed to a rod of iron, sometimes to a straight two-edged sword, but most commonly to a strong bamboo cane, four or five feet long, with an iron spike projecting beyond the tube: to this rod, or staff, the tube filled with combustible materials is fastened, and on the lighted match setting fire to the fuse, is projected with great velocity; if well directed, which is an uncertain operation, it causes much confusion and dismay among the enemy, from the difficulty of avoiding its terrifying and destructive effects.” Forbes, *Oriental Memoirs* (London, 1813), Vol. II, p. 63. Also see William Irvine, *The Army of the Indian Moghuls*, pp. 147-150.

E

Stone as a weapon of Defence.

The use of stone as a weapon of defence was by no means confined to Southern India and to Shivaji's times. Fitzclarence found heaps of stones near forts in the Deccan during the Pendhari war and Munro's soldiers were assailed with stones when they attempted to storm Chunar as the following extract shows :

"Our men at first marched up the hill with the greatest resolution, but large stones which the enemy rolled out of the breach, and on each side of it threw them so often down, and rolled them back again by twenties at a time. What with their endeavours to clamber up so steep a rock, and their being so often tumbled back by large stones rolled down upon them, our people were at last so fatigued, that they were obliged to give it up." Caraccioli, quoted by Sir G. W. Forrest, *The Life of Lord Clive*, Vol. II, p. 273.

C

The Raja of Satara.

Fitzclarence has very aptly compared the Raja of Satara with the *rois faineants* of France, and the Peshwas with the Mayors of Palace.

He says, "In both cases the son of the usurper, being a man of equal abilities to his father, continued to exercise the functions of government, till by degrees the people became accustomed to the rule of an imprisoned monarch, whose authority was exercised by the minister. But the farce of appearing to act under the orders of the Rajah of Satarah, a descendant of the family of Sevajee, has been always kept up the new Peishwa nominally receiving from the rajah the khelaut, or dress of honour, appointing him to the situation." Fitzclarence, *Journal*, pp. 285-286.

It appears that both in Northern and Central India the Maratha conquerors always took care to keep intact the authority of the old rulers in form and apparently governed the conquered country as their representatives. Jenkins writes of the Bhonsla rulers of Nagpur. "The Booslah family then, as we have seen, founds its rights to the Government of Deogurh, on treaty with its original possessors, and it still allows the title of Rajah to the Gond princes, with a commutation for the original share of the revenue of the country, as it stood, at the period of the conquest, and with the privilege of receiving it through their own officers; whilst the observances due to the ancient proprietors of the state, are carefully and even ostentatiously adhered. The Gond

Rajah gives the *Teeka*, or mark of royalty, to the Booslah princes, on their accession to the Gadee, and he is entitled to put his seal to certain revenue papers. These circumstances, though indicating a nominal partition of the sovereign dignity, do not however detract to any practical purpose, from the political independence of the Booslah Rajahs of Nagpore. In all foreign transactions, they were constituted by the Gond prince, the only channel of intercourse with other states." *Report on the Territories of the Rajah of Nagpore*; pp. 140-141.

D

Reception of the Angria.

How the Angrias were received by the Peshwa can be very well guessed from the following description of Lord Valentia's reception by Peshwa's servants :

"At a little distance I halted, and the Colonel went on. A carpet was spread on the plain : the deputation alighted, and after a few minutes, I advanced. We met on the carpet. Each person was presented separately to me by the Colonel, and embraced ; we then seated ourselves without chairs on cushions." *Voyages and Travels*, by George, Viscount Valentia, London, 1811, Vol. II, p. 102.

E

Character of Maratha Peasants.

“The most remarkable feature, perhaps, in the character of the Mahrattas, of all descriptions, is the little regard they pay to show or ceremony in the common intercourse of life. A peasant or mechanic, of the lowest order, appearing before his superiors, will sit down of his own accord, tell his story without ceremony, and converse more like an equal than an inferior; and if he has a petition to present, he talks in a loud and boisterous tone, and fearlessly sets forth his claims.” *Jenkins' Report*, p. 54.

“The great body of the Mahratta people are a very peaceable and simple peasantry, of frugal habits, and gentle dispositions; there seems to be no district in India, of equal extent and population, where so few crimes are committed, and of the robberies and murders which really occur the greatest part by far are the work of the Bheels, who on these mountains as well as in Central India, maintain a precarious and sanguinary independence, and are found less accessible to such means of conciliation as have yet been tried with them, than any of their more northern kindred.” *Narrative of a Journey*, Reginald Heber, Second Edition, Vol. III, p. 122.

F

Gaon Khandi.

This tax, Prof. Pissurlencar informs me, is still paid in some villages of Portuguese India. But what is still more interesting is that Prof. Pissurlencar finds from some entries in the *Livros dos Reis Visinhos* that Gaon Khandi was exacted from some villages in the District of Daman by Moro Pingle, Shivaji's Peshwa, in the years 1676, 1677 and 1678.

BOOK III

EVOLUTION OF THE MARATHA INSTITUTIONS THE ANCIENT HERITAGE

CHAPTER I

COUNCIL AND STATE DEPARTMENTS

1. Muhammadan conquerors not hostile to the indigenous institutions :

Before the formidable onslaught of Islam the old Hindu monarchies of Northern India disappeared one after another ; but the new rulers did not interfere much with the administrative institutions of Hindusthan. The Arab rulers had formerly employed Christians and Jews for revenue work in Syria and Palestine, the Iranians in Persia had been employed for similar work by their Muslim conquerors, after the fall of their national monarchy, and Muhammad bin Kasim, the first and the only Arab conqueror of an Indian province, not only employed Brahman officers for revenue collection in Sind, but allowed Brahman scholars and Brahman priests to enjoy without bar or hindrance the rent-free lands granted by their former Hindu rulers, and to continue their ancient form of worship in their sacred temples. The Muhammadan conquerors who followed him were not of Arab extraction, but they inherited from the Arabs, their traditional

policy and culture along with their faith. Moreover their number did not allow them to dispense with the services of the natives of the land, and while the Hindu monarchies disappeared the Hindu institutions survived.

A century passed ere a Muhammadan general led his conquering forces across the Vindhya, but neither he nor his immediate successors could establish their permanent sway over the Deccan. The simultaneous establishment of a Muhammadan monarchy, that depended not a little on the loyalty of its Hindu subjects against the hostility of the Muhammadan Emperors of Delhi, and the Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar, contributed largely to the vitality of the indigenous institutions and they were allowed to flourish undisturbed not only in the autonomous village republics but also in the courts of independent or semi-independent Hindu chiefs who found a safe retreat in the impregnable hill forts of their native land. The old institutions therefore continued to exist under the Muhammadan rulers and so powerfully did they influence the administrative policy of Muslim kings that even the most careless comparison will be enough to establish beyond doubt the close affinity between the revenue regulations of Tipu Sultan of Mysore, a zealous follower of the Prophet of Mecca, and those of the Peshwas, the Brahman defenders of the Hindu

faith. This was no mere accident, for if we compare the regulations set forth in the Hukum-namas of Coorg with the regulations of Tipu, the same resemblance will be evident. Our western critics will perhaps discover in this only another instance of the immobility of the unchanging East. But in which country, civilised or uncivilised, have old institutions completely died out? The national system of administration in every land has its root in the distant past, and such was also the case with the administrative institutions of the Peshwas. They have not been however mere blind imitators, they did not surrender their right of criticism when they turned for guidance to the old Shastras, but theirs was a work of reform as well as of conservation. Few rulers of course could, like Shivaji and the first Madhava Rao, shake off the superstitious veneration of their times and abolish the time-honoured customs that were either unjust or oppressive. But such reforms were from time to time effected and the Hindu system of government continued in the Bombay Presidency till the British conquest in 1818. Before the Marathas succumbed to their western rival, we find in their empire the same judicial system still in existence that prevailed in the days of Manu and Yajna-alkya; Narada and Brihaspati, Vishnu and Shukracharya; the same principle of revenue

administration still in operation that had been advocated by the celebrated Kautilya three hundred years before Christ, the same village communities still flourishing that existed in the days of the great Buddha.

2 *Council of Ministers :*

Before the foundation of the national monarchy, or as Sabhasad styles it, a 'Maratha Padshahi,' Maharashtra had been conquered by the Muhammadans. When Shivaji was enthroned at Raigad with all the pomp of a Hindu *abhisheka*, he positively committed himself not only to the policy of conservation of all the Hindu institutions that might still be in existence, but also to a policy of revival. The immediate result was the reorganisation of his cabinet or council, well-known as the Ashta Pradhan Council, and there is a tradition that he was guided in this work by the old Shastras in general and the Shukranitisara or the polity of Shukracharya in particular. But the Shukraniti is not the only work on polity to advocate the appointment of a council. The step has been commended by all political thinkers of old, though they were not quite unanimous about the number of councillors. Kautilya says, "According to the school of Manu the assembly of ministers shall be made to consist of twelve



Baji Rao Raghunath

members; the school of Brihaspati say that it shall consist of sixteen members; the school of Ushanas say that it shall consist of twenty members." But Kautilya himself recommends that the number should be regulated by the needs of the State.¹ Bhishma² held that the king should always consult eight³ principal ministers, four of whom should be Brahmans, three Kshatriyas and one Suta. In the preceding chapter of the Mahabharata, he is made to say that the king should appoint at least three ministers. According to Manu there should be "seven or eight ministers, whose ancestors have been royal servants, who are versed in the sciences, heroes skilled in the use of weapons and descended from noble families and who have been tried."³ But although we get the number eight in the Mahabharata and the Manu-Samhita there is very good reason to believe that the tradition, we have already referred to, was not altogether without a basis. The author of the Shukraniti, it is true, recommends that there should be ten councillors in all,⁴ *viz.*, the Purodha or priest, Pratinidhi or viceroy, Pradhana, Sachiva, Mantri, Pandit, Pradvivaka or Chief Justice, Amatya, Sumantraka and Duta or

¹ Kautilya's Arthashastra, pp. 32 and 33.

² Mahabharata, Santi Parva, Ch. 85.

³ Manu, vii, 54; S. B. E., p. 224.

⁴ Shukra Niti; S. B. H., pp. 68-71.

envoy, but as Kautilya suggested there was perhaps no hard and fast rule about it for the Shukranitisara itself suggests a council of eight also. If we exclude the Pratinidhi from the second list of the Shukraniti and include in it the Commander-in-chief, we get the Ashta Pradhan Council of Shivaji that consisted of the Mukhya Pradhan or the Prime Minister, the Amatya, the Mantri, the Sumanta, the Sachiv, the Pandit-Rao or Royal Priest, the Senapati or Commander-in chief and the Nyayadhish or the Chief Justice. The post of Pratinidhi was subsequently created by the second son of Shivaji and that minister had also a seat in the council and the council of eight was thus transformed into a council of nine within a few years of Shivaji's death⁵.

This similarity in the number and designation of councillors is by no means the only evidence in favour of the tradition. In a *Kanu Jabta* drawn up in the year one of the *Rajyabhisheka* era (published by Rao Bahadur Kashinath Narayan Sane), we find that on every paper, letter, and sanad issued from a state department, these eight Pradhans had to put their signature to indicate their approval, and if we compare this regulation with the following in the Shukraniti, "the Mantri, Chief Justice,

⁵ I acknowledge my indebtedness to Mr T S Shejaval Karve here for drawing my attention to the original text of the Shukranitisara

learned adviser as well as the ambassador should write: 'This document has been written with my consent'; the Amatya should write: 'Well written is this,' the Sumantra then should write: 'Well considered'; and the Priest is to write: 'Approved,'"⁶ we have very little doubt that for this particular regulation at least Shivaji was indebted to the sage of the Shukranitisara. But it will be a mistake to suppose that Shivaji's Ashta Pradhan Council was nothing but an imitation of Shukracharya's institution. According to Shukra, "the priest is superior to all others—the mainstay of king and kingdom, the viceroy comes next, next the premier, then the Sachiva, then the minister, next the Justice, then the scholar, next comes Sumantra, then the Amatya, lastly the spy."⁷ Nor was he by any means the only political thinker to allot the first place in the State to the priest, the author of the Mahabharata also upholds the same view and in support relates the story of king Muchukunda who inflicted a defeat on Kuvera,⁸ the semi-divine king of the Yakshas, mainly by the magical powers of his family priest, the sage Vashishtha. But in Shivaji's Council the priest was relegated to the last place save one, while to the prime

⁶ Shukra Niti, S. B. H., p. 97.

⁷ Shukra Niti, S. B. H., pp. 68-69.

⁸ Shanti Parva, Chs. 73 and 74.

minister and the Senapati were allotted the first seats on the right and left of their sovereign. Nor was this the only difference. Although the same designations were retained by Shivaji, the duties assigned to his ministers were by no means identical with those appertaining to those very offices according to the Shukraniti. The Pradhan or prime minister had indeed like the Peshwa, a general supervision of all state affairs, but the Sachiva of the Shukraniti was the war minister, while the Sachiva of Shivaji was in charge of royal correspondence. Similarly the Amatya of Shivaji was his finance minister while his namesake of Shukracharya's time had the charge of land revenue. Shivaji's Sumanta held the portfolio of foreign affairs, while the old Sumantra was at the head of the finance department. Shivaji had not therefore revived the *Mantri Parisad* or council of the Hindu political philosophers in all its details. The tradition of such councils had perhaps survived in the courts of the semi-independent Maratha chiefs, for Maharashtra had never been thoroughly conquered by the Muhammadans. Or perhaps the institutions still existed in the small principalities of the south, the off-shoots of the once great Vijayanagar kingdom. What we regard as a revival might have been really a case of slow evolution for aught we know. The process came to a sudden stop when the East was brought into forced contact with the West.

3. *Private Secretary:*

Every ruler needs reliable private secretaries and confidential clerks. Shivaji's Chitnis, Balaji Avji, was however more than a mere scribe. His counsel was sought on every question of weight and Malhar Ram Rao tells us that Shivaji had offered him a seat in his council. Bala Prabhu was not the only Lekhaka, there was another, his brother Nilo Prabhu. Expediency alone might have demanded the creation of these posts, but it is interesting to note that Malhar Rao should speak about the nature of their official duties almost in the same strain as Kautilya did in the 4th century B. C. while describing the work of the Lekhaka of his time. It is also worth noticing, that Kautilya should deem it necessary for the Lekhaka to possess ministerial qualifications. Says the great Mauryan statesman, "One who is possessed of ministerial qualifications, acquainted with all kinds of customs, smart in composition, good in legible writing, and sharp in reading shall be appointed as a writer (Lekhaka). Such a writer, having attentively listened to the king's order and having well thought out the matter under consideration, shall reduce the order to writing."^{8a} Do we not hear an echo of the above when

^{8a} Kautilya, p. 80.

Malhar Ram Rao Chitnis tells us "The Chitnis Patra Lekhaka should write all roval correspondence and diplomatic notes. He should divine what is there in the king's mind and in various ways should cleverly put it into writing at once"⁸

4 *State Departments*

Let us now turn to the eighteen Karkhanas and twelve Mahals, which Shivaji found it necessary to organise for administrative purposes

These were¹⁰

The eighteen Karkhanas :

1	Khajna	...	Cash
2.	Jawahir Khana	...	Jewellery
3	Ambar Khana	.	Grannary
4	Sharbat Khana		Medicines
5	Toph Khana		Artillery Stores
6	Daphtar Khana		Record Depart- ments
7	Jamadar Khana		Public Treasury
8	Jirat Khana		Agriculture
9	Mudbakh Khana		Kitchen

⁸ Chitnis, p. 168

¹⁰ Sabhasad pp 94-95 These names are here repeated for the convenience of the reader

10.	Ushtar Khana	...	Camels and their-trappings.
11.	Nagar Khana	...	Band and music
12.	Talim Khana	...	Gymnasium.
13.	Pilkhana	...	Elephant sheds, etc.
14.	Faras Khana	...	Carpets and accessories.
15.	Abdarkhana	...	Drinks.
16.	Shikar Khana	...	Games, aviary, chase and allied materials.
17.	Daru Khana	...	Magazine.
18.	Shahat Khana	...	Conservancy Department.

The twelve Mahals :

1.	Pote	...	The Treasury.
2.	Saudagir	...	Merchandise.
3.	Palkhi	...	Palanquin.
4.	Kothi	...	Store house.
5.	Imarat	...	Building.
6.	Bahili	...	Chariots.
7.	Paga	...	Stables.
8.	Seri	...	Comforts.
9.	Daruni	...	The Zenana.
10.	Thatti	...	Cowsheds.
11.	Tankasal	...	Mints.
12.	Sabina	...	Guards.

Some of these departments were doubtless unknown to the old Hindus. Artillery did not come into existence in Kautilya's time and he could not therefore think of a Superintendent of Tophkhana or a Superintendent of Darukhana. But many of the other departments were well known in India before the Muhammadan conquest, or as a matter of fact before the birth of Christ. The Shukraniti recommends that the king should appoint separately the heads of elephants, horses, chariots, infantry, cattles, camels, deer, birds gold, jewels, silver, clothes, the chief of treasure, the chief of grains, and the superintendent of cooking, the superintendent of parks, and the head of buildings and palaces, as also always the superintendent of the necessities and contingencies, the officers in charge of the religious establishments and the superintendent of charities.¹¹ The compiler of the present text of the Shukraniti was acquainted with fire-arms (Nalika), and it may be objected therefore that it is a comparatively recent work. But the antiquity of Kautilya's Arthashastra is fairly well admitted and Kautilya has recounted the duties of superintendents of no less than twenty departments at least ten of which survived till Shivaji's time, while others left undeniable marks in the institutions of the

¹¹ Shukraniti, S. B. H., p. 75.

Peshwa period. Kautilya has laid down rules for examination of gems that are to be entered into the treasury; the treasury contemplated by him therefore corresponded to Shivaji's Jawahir Khana. Kautilya recounts the duties of the Superintendents of Store-house, Commerce, Armoury, Agriculture, Liquor, Cows, Horses, Elephants and Chariots, and we find these departments also in the list quoted above from Sabhasad. These departments however did not form the only link with the past.

CHAPTER II

TOWN PLANNING

1 *Site of the Metropolis*

Let us turn to Shivaji's capital His *abhisheka* or coronation was celebrated in an impregnable hill fort, where he could with impunity defy his enemies to do their worst, for aircraft was still undreamt of in Aurangzib's time except in nursery tales, and contemporary European writers tell us that the defenders of Raigad could easily repulse their assailants by rolling down huge pieces of stone only It was in such an impregnable fort, well protected by a strong wall, ditch and arms, that the sage of the Mahabharata advised the king to establish his capital ¹ Manu has also counselled that the king should build his capital town, "making for his safety a fortress, protected by a desert, or a fortress built of (stone and earth), or one protected by water or trees, or one (formed by an encampment of armed) men or a hill-fort" ²

¹ Santi Parva, ch , 88

² Manu, VII, 70, S B E , p 227

2. *Town Planning :*

But we need not lay too much emphasis on this coincidence. It was a matter of common prudence, and one so able and shrewd as Shivaji did not want the injunctions of the Mahabharata, or the Manu Samhita, to see that his capital should be well-fortified, well-protected, well-provisioned and favourably situated on an inaccessible rock, within a convenient distance from the sea. But the buildings and quarters of his newly founded metropolis were not unconnected with the past and will well repay our attention. We can profitably turn to his son's court historian, Krishnaji Ananta Sabhasad for necessary information on this head. According to him Shivaji had built in the fortress of Rairi not only palaces for his queens, separate quarters for the Sarkarkuns and Commanders of five thousand and men of note, council-hall building and market, but also stables for elephants, horses and camels, sheds for palanquins, chariots, and cattle and a store-house. "The palace is to be in the midst of the council-buildings," Shukracharya tells us, "and it, must have stables for elephants, horses and cattle."³ He further recommends that "dwelling houses for ministers, clerks, and members of council and officers

³ Shukraniti, S. B. H., p. 29.

should be built separately to the north and east ”
 “The wise king should provide for the house of the people in order of wealth and birth near his palace in all directions ”⁴ It is remarkable that, while recounting the buildings to be constructed within a fort, Kautilya mentions among others, the royal kitchen, elephant-stables, the store-house, the treasury, the accountant's office, the store-house for forest produce, the arsenal, stables for asses and camels, stables for conveyances and chariots, shops and hospitals, stables for cows and horses, and quarters for the superintendents of the city, of commerce, of manufactories, and of the army But this was not all Raigad will bear a detailed comparison with the ideal fort of Kautilya and the ideal metropolis of the Shukraniti

Raigad was capital of the Maratha kingdom for sixteen years only and had to stand a siege of eleven days in 1818, when many of the houses and public buildings were badly damaged Since then it has been suffered to fall into ruins and to-day it is deemed quite uninhabitable But still there is no scarcity of ponds and cisterns in the ruined city, two of which, the Ganga Sagar and the Kushavarta tank, are fairly large This naturally reminds one of Shukracharya's injunction that the capital

⁴ Shukraniti S B, H, p 33

"must ever be provided with wells, tanks and pools."⁵ It is not easy to establish the identity of all the ruined buildings, but in the map published in the Bombay Gazetteer⁶ we find that the ministers' quarters and the bazar were situated to the north-east, there were two store-houses to the south and the south-east, and the Mahadeva temple stood far to the north of the palace and around the temple were the dancing girls' quarters. Within two hundred yards of the Rang Mahal or palace of pleasure, to the north of it, stood the citadel and the powder magazines were built near the Shrigonda point to the east. To the north-west of the palaces were the elephant-stables. According to Shukra, "houses should be built towards the west for cows, deer, camels, elephants and other animals"⁷ "Dwelling houses for ministers, clerks, members of the council and officers should be built separately to the north or east. Leaving a space of 100 cubits towards the north and 200 cubits towards the east of the palace, military cantonments are to be laid out."⁸ Kautilya observes that "royal teachers, priests, sacrificial place, water reservoir and ministers shall occupy sites east by north to the palace; to the north by west shops and hospitals; to the north the royal tutelary deity

⁵ Shukra Niti, S. B. H., p. 29.

⁶ Vol. XI, p. 357.

⁷ S. B. H., p. 30.

⁸ Shukra Niti, S. B. H., p. 33.

of the city"⁹ It is not easy to dismiss this resemblance as a chance coincidence The more logical inference is that these conventional rules of town planning have been transmitted from generation to generation, and the plan of Raigad had been evolved from one that was in fashion in Northern India more than three centuries before Christ

Thus it is clear that not only was his cabinet modelled on the Mantri Parisads of old, but his secretaries his eighteen Karkhanas, and twelve Mahals, and even the palaces, council-halls, the officers' quarters and other buildings of Shivaji's capital formed a link between the Maharashtra of the 17th century A D and Mauryan Aryavarta of the 4th century B C But these were by no means the only old institutions, others could boast of an antiquity equally remote and could tell a story of slow evolution and gradual adaptation that would interest all students of Comparative Politics

⁹ Kautilya Arthashastra p 61

It may be incidentally noted that according to Kautilya elephant stables should be situated on sites east by south Shivaji had therefore more closely followed the plan described in the Shukraniti than that of any other work on polity

CHAPTER III

VILLAGE COMMUNITIES

1. *Their Antiquity :*

In Shivaji's time as well as under the Peshwas, the villages of Maharashtra were so many States within the State, self-contained and isolated. The head of the state was a despot, helped, but by no means controlled, by a council. The villages at the base were linked by a chain of royal officers with the supreme government. Such had also been the case in the past. We read in the Vishnu Samhita that the king should "appoint chiefs in every village ; also lords of every ten villages ; lords of hundred villages and lords of a whole district."¹ The Mahabharata mentions lords of a single village, lords of ten villages, lords of twenty villages, lords of hundred villages and lords of thousand villages.² We find the same division in Manu also : "let him (the king) appoint a lord over (each) village, as well as lords of ten villages, lords of twenty villages, lords of a

¹ Vishnu, S. B. E., Vol. VII, pp. 15-17.

² Shanti Parva, Chap. 81.

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⁹ Kautilya, Arthashastra, p. 61.

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¹ Vishnu, S. B. E., Vol. VII, pp. 15-17.

² Shanti Parva, Chap. 81.

hundred, and lords of a thousand"³ This division no longer prevailed in Shivaji's time, it had been replaced long before him by one more simple and convenient Single villages still formed the administrative unit, but divisions of ten or hundred did not exist A Tarf did not necessarily consist of ten villages, nor did ten, twenty or hundred Tarfs make a Prant It is not improbable that Shivaji's division was the natural evolution of the one that existed when Manu's code had been compiled, the connecting link between the two systems being supplied by Vishnu who still retained the unit of the single village, with the lordship of ten villages His district perhaps corresponded to Shivaji's *Prant*

Another link with the past is supplied by the appellation of the officer in charge of a Tarf He was in rare instances still called Paripatyagar when Shivaji ruled, and from some papers published by Mr V K Rajwade it appears that he had to perform the duties of a Police Magistrate It appears from this that he was the lineal successor of Danda-nayaka and Dandanatha of the old inscriptions For the word *danda* has often been used in old works on Hindu law as well as in the Mahabharata⁴ in the sense of punishment

³ Manu VII, 115, S B E p 234

⁴ Shanti Parva

and can therefore be regarded as synonymous with the Marathi term *paripatya*. Sir R. G. Bhandarkar no doubt holds that the Danda-nayaka was a minister of war⁵ and Dr. Fleet was of opinion that the terms Danda-nayaka and Chamunath were synonymous,⁶ but there are instances of its being used in the other sense as well. Dr. R. Shama Shastri has translated Dandadhara as a Magistrate.⁷ It will not therefore be unreasonable to suggest that the term Paripatyagar was really a relic of the past, and it still survives in the Paripothaygars of Coorg.

The antiquity of the Indian village communities has been established beyond doubt. References to their constitution, regulations and bye-laws, have been made by Kautilya, Manu, Vishnu, Brihaspati, Narada, and other Indian law-givers of old. Village affairs have not unfrequently been described in Buddhist Jataka stories. The subject has been very ably and exhaustively treated by Dr. R. C. Majumdar and all that I should do here is to refer my readers to his "Corporate Life in Ancient India," and confine myself to an enquiry about the antiquity of rights and perquisites of village officers as well as their duties.

⁵ Early Hist. of the Dekkan, 2nd edition, p. 90.

⁶ J. B. Br. R. A. S., XVI, p. 2.

⁷ Kautilya, Arthashastra, p. 10.

2 *Headman and the Scribe*

The village headman in Maharashtra is called Patil. It is evident that the word has been derived from Pattakila of the inscriptions. The second officer was Kulkarni, occasionally styled in very old records as the Grama-lekhaka. Kulkarni most probably is a compound of the words *kula* and *karan* and originally meant an officer in charge of accounts relating to village lands. Kula occurs in Manu VII, 119 and according to Dr. Bühler it denotes as much land as suffices for one family, "Kulam," says he, "is really a technical term which Medhatithi explains by ghanta, a term known in some districts. Govindaraja, Kulluka, Narayana and Raghavananda state that it is the double of a 'middling plough,' i.e., as much as can be cultivated with twelve oxen while Nandana interprets it as the share of one cultivator" ⁸. It is not however impossible that the term *kura* known in some of Bengal districts has been derived from kula of Manu. The word *kuli* indicating a measure of land, also occurs in the following sentence in a Kanarese inscription of Singhanadeva. "Also the fixed contribution that was allotted, free from all opposing claims, on the fixed betel plantation measuring five hundred kulis which was to the

south of (the temple) of the god."⁹ Kulam therefore, as Manu understood it, was not unknown in Southern India. The word *karana* according to Dr. Bhagavanlal Indraji means a department; and Patal Karni the functionary in charge of the Patal Department.¹⁰ Karnika has been translated by Dr. Kielhorn as writer of legal documents¹¹; Karnika according to Dr. R. Shama Shastri was a Superintendent of accounts.¹² That officers in charge of a *Karan* had also perhaps something to do with the State records will be seen in the following extract from Sir R. G. Bhandarkar's *Early History of the Dekkan*. "In the introduction to his works on *Dharmashastras* he (Hemadri) is called Mahadeva's Shri Karanadhipa or Shri Karanaprabhu. In the Thana copper plate of 1194 Shaka also, he is said to have taken upon himself the *adhipatya* or controllership of all *Karana*. This office seems to have been that of chief secretary or one who wrote and issued all orders on behalf of his masters and kept the State Record."¹³ The Kulkarni also wrote all accounts and legal documents, as well as orders (emanating from the Patil) and was in charge of the village records. The words *Karan* and

⁹ Fleet, J. B. Br. R. A. S., XII, pp. 22ff. ¹⁰ Ind. Ant., XII, p. 122.

¹¹ Harsha Inscription, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 129, Siyadoni Inscription, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 166. ¹² Kautilya, Arthashastra, p. 71.

¹³ Early History of the Dekkan, 2nd ed., p. 116.

Karnika as interpreted above by these celebrated scholars, include all these different functions. My suggestion that Kulkarni is a compound of 'kula' and 'karani' meaning an officer in charge of the *karana* of *kulas* or village lands is not therefore altogether untenable.

3 *Their Duties.*

Let us now turn to our main enquiry, the antiquity of the official duties, as well as the rights and perquisites of these village officers. The Patil, in the Maratha days, was the revenue officer, the chief Police Magistrate, and he united in himself the functions of the chief judicial officer as well. Dr Majumdar says, ¹⁴ "Thus we learn from Kharassara Jataka ¹⁵ that it was the duty of the headman (Gamabhojaka) to collect revenue, and with the help of local men to secure the village against the inroads of robbers." The Patil had also inherited his judicial authority from his predecessor of the ancient Indian villages. "The judicial powers of the headman of a village (Gamabhojaka)," says the same writer, "are referred to in the Jataka stories *** There is no express mention in the Jataka stories that he exercised them in conjunction with the villagers. The Kulavaka Jataka seems

¹⁴ Corporate Life in Ancient India, p. 57

¹⁵ No. 79, I. 354

to show that such was the case at least in some villages."¹⁰ The old Hindu lawgivers are not altogether silent about this important function of the village headman. Vishnu certainly refers to his judicial authority when he says, "If any offence has been committed in a village, let the lord of that village suppress the evil, and give redress to those that have been wronged."¹⁷

The Patil under the Marathas was responsible for the discovery and restoration of all stolen properties within his jurisdiction, failing which he had to make adequate compensation for the loss. He could however escape this by tracing the thief to the next village when the responsibility was transferred to the headman and the inhabitants of that village. In Apstamba's time¹⁸ village officers appointed by the king were charged with similar duties. They must protect a town from thieves in every direction to the distance of one krosa from each village. (They must protect the country to the distance of one krosa from each village.) They must be made to repay what is stolen within these (boundaries)."¹⁹ When Kautilya wrote (4th century B.C.), vendors of wine were charged with similar responsibility with regard to the property of their drunken customers. "When customers

¹⁰ Corporate Life in Ancient India, p. 62.

¹⁷ S. B. E., Vol. VII, p. 15.

¹⁸ 4th or 5th century B. C.

¹⁹ S. B. E., Vol. II, p. 162.

under intoxication lose any of their things, the merchants of the shop,' says Kautilya, "shall not only make good the loss, but also pay an equivalent fine" ²⁰ Similarly the Superintendent of Tolls had to make good whatever had been lost by merchants in the part of the country under his charge ²¹ Kautilya is not silent about a similar responsibility of the village headman. Having made the value, etc., of their merchandise known (to the headman of the village), traders shall halt in some part of a village. When any part of their merchandise which has not been truly sent out of the village during the night has been stolen or lost, the headman of the village shall make good the loss' Kautilya further lays down that "whatever of their merchandise is stolen or lost in the intervening places between two villages, the Superintendent of pasture-lands shall make good. If there are no pasture-lands in such places, the officer called *Chorarajjuka* shall make good the loss. If the loss of merchandise occurs in such parts of the country as are not provided even with such security (a *chorarajjuka*), the people in the boundaries of the place shall contribute to make up the loss. If there are no people in the boundaries, the people of five or ten villages of the neighbourhood shall make

²⁰ Kautilya Arthashastra, p 148

²¹ Kautilya, Arthashastra, p 138

p the loss."²² Under the Mauryas, therefore, not only the village headman, but in certain cases the villagers had to compensate for any property stolen or lost in their neighbourhood. When the Vishnu Samhita was compiled (not earlier than the 3rd century A. D.) the duty of compensating persons who had been robbed devolved on the king. "Having recovered goods stolen by thieves let him restore them entire to their owners, to whatever caste they may belong. If he has been unable to recover them, he must pay (their value) out of his own treasury."²³ Narada, who possibly wrote in the sixth century A. D., however, lays down that "he on whose ground a robbery has been committed must trace the thieves to the best of his power, or else he must make good what has been stolen, unless the foot marks can be traced from that ground (into another man's ground). When the foot marks after leaving that ground are lost and cannot be traced any further, the neighbours, inspectors of the road, and governors of that region shall be made responsible for the loss."²⁴ This certainly offers the closest approximation to the Maratha system, which can be very well illustrated by a comparison with an old Marathi paper in which a similar process

²² Kautilya, *Arthashastra*, p. 293.

²³ S. B. E., Vol. VII, p. 20. ²⁴ S. B. E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 225.

has been described²⁵ The Patil as the Police Magistrate of the village naturally became responsible for the recovery of all stolen property, but the real work of tracing out the thieves fell upon the Ramoshis, a criminal tribe, charged with the police work of the village The compensation-money paid to the party robbed, was generally raised by levying a fine on the Ramoshis

From the Jataka stories, referred to by Dr R C Majumdar as well as the Mahabharata, the Manu Samhita and the Vishnu Smriti, it appears that the village headman was appointed by the king From the story of the Nishada Kayavya²⁶ however it appears that the Gramani or the village headman was sometimes elected by the villagers The Maratha Patil was neither elected by his co villagers nor appointed by the State He was a hereditary officer, with hereditary rights which he could transfer by sale According to Dr Majumdar, one of the Mathura Jama image inscriptions which refers to a lady, would be the first wife of the village headman and daughter-in-law of the village headman, would seem to imply that the post of village headman was hereditary in the family²⁷ Thus it appears that even in very early times

²⁵ See Rajwade, *Marathyanchnya Itibhasani Sadhanen*, Vol X, p 116

²⁶ Mahabharata, Shanti Parva.

²⁷ *Corporate Life in Ancient India*, pp 61-62

the office had acquired a hereditary character. The process of transformation is not very hard to guess, and in Maratha days elected or appointed Patil or Kulkarni were altogether unknown.

While discussing the etymology of the word Kulkarni, we have discussed the duties of that officer. It will suffice here to note that his duties were somewhat analogous to those of the Gopa and the Sthanika of the Mauryan towns. "A Gopa," says Kautilya, "shall keep the accounts of ten households, twenty households, or forty households. He shall not only know the caste, gotra, the name and occupation of both men and women in those households, but also ascertain their income and expenditure. Likewise, the officer known as Sthanika shall attend to the accounts of the four quarters of the capital."²⁸

3. *The Potdar :*

The origin of another Maratha village officer, *viz.*, the Potdar, can be traced to the Maurya days. The Potdar was a Sonar or goldsmith by caste, and his duty was to assay coins. Kautilya mentions an examiner of coins,²⁹ and lays down that no gold coin should be accepted by the treasury officer unless its purity has been attested

²⁸ Kautilya, *Arthashastra*, p. 181.

²⁹ Kautilya, *Arthashastra*, pp. 65, 79, 98.

to by the examiner of coins (or Rupadarsaka)³⁰ It was his duty to regulate currency both as a medium of exchange and as legal tender admissible into the treasury³¹ Whether Kautilya's Rupadarsaka was like the Maratha Potdar a goldsmith by caste or profession we do not know, but it may be noticed here that the officer in charge of the Maurya mint was, as in Maratha days, a goldsmith While in Shivaji's time and under the Peshwa regime the goldsmiths obtained license, on the payment of a premium, for opening and working mints under certain stipulations and reservations, the Maurya kings had mints of their own, and these were worked under the supervision of the State goldsmith

4 *The Patil's perquisites*

Let us now turn to the perquisites of the Patil's office and try to find out how many of them had the sanction of the old Hindu lawgivers It appears from a Marathi deed of sale that the following were among others the dues that it was customary for the Patil to receive from his co villagers

- 1 A bundle of fuel
- 2 $1\frac{1}{2}$ maunds per boat load of grain
3. Twenty-five bundles of jawar-sticks from each cultivator

³⁰ Arthashastra, p 64.

³¹ Arthashastra, p 98

4. Five seers of cotton from each field.
5. One bundle of jawar from each cultivator.
6. Two pairs of shoes per year from the shoemaker.
7. One bundle of green fodder from each cultivator.
8. Nine *taks* of oils from each oil-mill.
9. Thirteen leaves per day from each seller of betel leaves.
10. One lump of molasses, one bundle of sugar-cane and one tin of juice from each farm growing sugar-cane, excepting that belonging to the Joshi.
11. One goat from each herd on the Dasra day.
12. One piece of cloth per loom per year from all classes of weavers.
13. One piece of cloth per year from the loom of a Dhangar.
14. Half a cocoanut for every marriage-negotiation, marriage and widow-remarriage.
15. Vegetables from vegetable growers.
16. All produce, except corn, on one *wafa* from each farm.
17. Customary shares from each seller in the market.
18. Customary rent from each Bania's stall.
19. $\frac{3}{4}$ seer per bag of grocery from a grocer's shop.

- 20 The customary amount of salt and chaff per bag
- 21 One nut per day from each grocer's shop
- 22 Water to be supplied by the Koli

The Patil perhaps owed these dues to a law of Manu which says "Those (articles) which the villagers ought to furnish daily to the king such as food, drink, and fuel, the lord of one village shall obtain. The ruler of ten (villages) shall enjoy one *kula* (as much land as suffice for one family), the ruler of twenty-five *kulas*, the Superintendent of a hundred villages (the revenues of) one village, the lord of a thousand (the revenue of) a town.³² The Patilship corresponded to the lordship of one village. According to Manu he was not entitled to any rent-free land, but the Maratha Patil in addition to food, drink and fuel, as enumerated in the above list, enjoyed some rent-free Inam land as well. As Manu allots to the Patil all that "the villagers ought to furnish daily to the king," let us see what the king could expect from a village according to other Hindu jurists. The king, according to Kautilya, could "exercise his right of ownership with regard to fishing, ferrying and trading in vegetables (*haritpanya*) in reservoirs or lakes."³³ From villages of different

³² S B E, Vol XXV, pp 234 235

³³ Kautilya, Arthashastra, p 63

descriptions, he could expect taxes in the form of grains, cattle, gold or raw materials, free labour and dairy produce.³⁴ Vishnu allows the king to take from his subjects as taxes "a sixth part every year of the grain; and sixth part of all other seeds; two in the hundred, of cattle, gold and clothes; a sixth part of flesh, honey, clarified butter, herbs, perfumes, flowers, roots, fruits, liquids and condiments, wood, leaves (of the palmyra tree and others), skins, earthen pots, stone vessels, and anything made of split bamboo."³⁵ It is necessary to note here that the list quoted above is by no means exhaustive and the document from which we quoted it, does not give a complete list of all the rights and perquisites of the Patil's office. These varied in different parts of Maharashtra, as the king's demands must have varied in different parts of India at different times. A comparison between our list of the Patil's dues and those supplied by Kautilya and Vishnu leaves little doubt as to the antiquity of the different items. The village Mali on festive occasions had to supply flowers for the Patil's house. He was entitled to the free labour of the Koli and the Mahar who had to supply him with water and fuel respectively. The Mahar could not take the skin of his dead cattle, and the

³⁴ Kautilya, *Arthashastra*, p. 178.

³⁵ S. B. E., Vol. VII, p. 16.

shoemaker, the oil man, the weaver had to give him shoes, oil and cloth. He was entitled to a share of the vegetables, or *hanṭpanya* of Kautilya, and herbs sold in the village. He got one goat from each herd on the Dasra day which correspond to sixth part of flesh, which according to *Vishnu* the king could take. "The customary rent for each Bania's stall" is no less old than the *Shukra Niti* where we read that the king should have 'land tax from shop keepers'."

The old legal works does not form the only evidence in favour of the antiquity of these dues. Some of them have been mentioned in old inscriptions as well. The Maratha Patils were entitled to a small tax in money on the occasion of each marriage and widow-re-marriage (*Lagna-patti* and *Patdam*) in the village. Reference is made to such a tax in a Kanarese inscription of Yadava Singhana Deva³⁶ "And whenever those same Ugura three hundred and the five hundred and four," so runs the inscription, "asked with importunity they gave one coin such as is given on marriage occasions." The same inscription mentions an impost of betel-leaves on betel-leaf sellers and a measure of oil on each oil mill. "*Harikukul* and the contribution on the profits," we read in this interesting document, "was the impost of betel-leaves

³⁶ Fleet, J B Br R A S, XXII, pp 22f

levied on the road ; and there was allotted to the same god one *visa* on each load of a beast of burden of betel leaves. Two *solasages* of oil were given on each oil mill to provide for the ceremony of averting the effects of the evil eye, which was held on Mondays at the Singvatti of that locality. And one oil mill was set apart for the god. Sixty cultivators gave a *kandage* of dried fruits, grains, etc. And the reapers of the betel plants will give (a contribution). The ministers of the king shall recognize these imposts. And the sellers of betel leaves and areca-nuts inside the village will give' (a contribution) when they realize in cash the price that they obtain." This grant was made by Danda-nayaka Purushottama, an officer of the Yadava king, Singhana Deva, to a temple at Munoli in the Belgaum district, and the date of the inscription is 1145 of the Shaka era. This clearly shows how these imposts were common in Southern India in the 13th century of the Christian era.

These imposts were not however peculiar to South India alone, they are mentioned along with "the rent of a Bania's stall" in an earlier North Indian inscription, *viz.*, the famous temple inscription of Siyadoni, which can be ascribed to the tenth century A. D., according to Prof. Kielhorn. Among other donations recorded in this huge inscription, the following will be of special interest to us.

(26-27) (Samvat 994, Vaishakha vadi 5, Samkrantau) The sellers of betel Shavara, son of Keshava and Madhava, son of Ichchu, gave an endowment realizing the payment of a *vigrahadrammavisovaka* on every *palika* of leaves to the god Vishnu, set up by Chanduka

(27-28) Nagaka gave a *palika* of oil from every oil mill of the oil makers

(30-31) Samvat 1008, Magha shudi 11 Keshava, Durgaditya and other oil makers, gave a *palika* of oil from every oil mill to Shri Cakraswamideva, set up by Purandara in the temple of Vishnu erected by Chandu

(36-39) Samvat 1025, Magha vadi 9 The merchant Shridhara, son of Mahaditya assigned a quarter of a *Shrimadadivarahadramma*, paid as the rent of a *vithi* to Shri-Vishnu-bhattaraka set up by Mahaditya in the temple of Vishnu erected by Chandu ³⁷

I do not contend that the imposts mentioned in the Munoli temple inscription and the voluntary gifts enumerated in the Siyadoni inscription were in all respects identical with the dues of the Patil. According to Manu the village officer was entitled to all that the king could expect from a village. Kautilya says that in lieu of a tax in cash some villages were allowed to pay the royal tax in the shape of grains, dairy

products, labour, military service, etc. In the above two inscriptions we find that imposts of betel-leaves, and a certain measure of oil from each oil mill were made in favour of a god. Is it quite unreasonable to suppose that the betel-leaf seller, the oilman, the shoemaker, the areca-nut seller (grocer) had similarly offered to give the Patil a share of their produce, to which he was entitled according to the laws of Manu, and the existing imposts in favour of the village headman had led to similar imposition in favour of the village god ? .

5. *The Balutas :*

The Balutas or village artisans played an important part in Maratha villages. They enjoyed hereditary monopoly of their trade within the village, and in the harvest time got a share of grains from each cultivator. Reference to the perquisites of the artisans (Karukainadi) is made in a Yadava inscription dated 1175 of the Shaka era.³⁸ The Balutas were termed as Karu in the Peshwa days also. It is not therefore unreasonable to suppose that these existed in the Maratha village in the 13th century A. D. also, when Maharashtra was still under the Hindu Yadava kings.

³⁸ Fleet, J. B. Br. R. A. S., XII, p. 49.

CHAPTER IV

CITY POLICE

1 The Kotwal and the Nagaraka

From the village let us turn to the city. The officer in charge of a Maratha city was the Kotwal and the officer in charge of Mauryan city was styled, as we learn from Kautilya, as Nagaraka. The Kotwal was a Police Magistrate and at the head of the city police. He had to dispose of all important disputes. He had to regulate prices. He had to take the census and keep a record of all persons coming into and leaving the city. He had to dispose of all disputes relating to roads, lanes and houses, and finally he had to furnish monthly accounts to the government.¹ It is evident that the Maratha Kotwal had inherited some of his duties from the Mauryan Nagaraka who also had "to look to the affairs of his city," whose assistants the Gopas and the Sthanikas kept accounts and also took the census. (What else can Kautilya mean when he says of the Gopa, 'he shall not only know the caste, gotra, the name and occupation

¹ Peshwa's Diaries, Madhava Rao I, Vol II, pp 234 236

of both men and women in those households, but ascertain their income and expenditure ? ”) He also kept himself informed of all new arrivals, through the Gopa and the Sthanika. The Nagaraka enforced regulations regarding houses and streets as well as sanitary regulations. He had to arrest thieves and to search for bad characters with the help of the spies, and the city police.² This is not all. We learn from Tone that at Poona, under the regime of Baji Rao II no person could appear in the streets without being arrested, after the firing of the gun at ten at night. The prisoner was detained till morning when he was dismissed by the Kotwal. “So strict is the discipline,” Tone tells us, “that the Peshwa himself had been kept prisoner a whole night for being out at improper hours.” This regulation is, we find to our surprise, at least as old as Kautilya’s Arthashastra. While recounting the duties of the Nagaraka, the Mauryan statesman writes : “The interval between six nalikas ($2\frac{2}{5}$ hours) after the fall of night and six nalikas before the dawn shall be the period when a trumpet shall be sounded, prohibiting the movement of the people. The trumpet having been sounded, whoever moves in the vicinity of the royal buildings during the first or the last yama (3 hours ?) of the period shall be punished with

² Kautilya, Arthashastra, pp. 180-185, and p. 273.

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a fine of one pana and a quarter, and during the middlemost yamas with double the above fine, and whoever moves outside (the royal buildings or the fort) shall be punished with four times the above fine'.³

Thus we find that the administrative divisions of Maharashtra, the organisation of the village communities, the organisation of the city government were all based on the old Hindu system. The old Hindu institutions in most cases not only survived but largely contributed to the development of the Maratha administrative system. And if we examine the Maratha revenue and judicial system, we will get further convincing proofs of the survival of the old Hindu institution in Maharashtra. Even the Marathi grant deeds and judgments will yield fresh evidence of this process of slow evolution of Maratha institutions from the earlier Hindu institutions through successive stages.

³ Kautilya Arthashastra, p 184

CHAPTER V

LAND REVENUE AND CESSES

1. *Classification of land :*

Land in Maharastra was divided into three main classes :

- (1) Land let out to permanent holders.
- (2) Crown or demesne land.
- (3) Forests.

Arable land was again classed as jirayat and bagayat according to the character of their soil, and patasthal and motasthal according to the manner of irrigation, and superior, inferior and ordinary according to their fertility, as we find in a letter addressed to Appaji Hari, Maimlatdar of Wan Dindori, in the year 1760-61. "He was told that the villages should be surveyed. The land should be classed as superior, ordinary and inferior and also as jirayat and bagayat as well as patasthal and motasthal." A further distinction is made between waste and rocky lands and lands already brought under cultivation. While a still fresh classification is made for revenue purposes according to the crops generally raised on the land in question as will be seen

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in the following extract from a document of the time of Balaji Baji Rao

- (1) *Rice lands* should be assessed at the rate of Rs 5 per bigha as before
- (2) Lands producing *sugarcane* should be assessed at the rate of Rs 5 per bigha as before

- (3) *Vegetable* producing lands should pay Rs 2 per bigha as before
- (4) Lands under *summer crops* should be assessed at Rs 1 8 per bigha as before

These various classifications, divisions and subdivisions were by no means new and were known as early as the Maurya era when the great Brahman administrator and political philosopher wrote his *Arthashastra*. He makes a clear distinction between *sita* or produce from crown lands and *bhaga* or portion of produce payable to the government. "Flower gardens, fruits gardens, vegetable gardens, wet fields and fields where crops are grown by sowing roots for seeds (Mulavapah), he continues, "come under Setu Game forests, timber forests and elephant forests are forests". While recounting the duties of the Gopa, Kautilya lays down that "It is the duty of Gopa, village accountant, to attend to the accounts of five or ten villages as ordered by the collector general. By setting

up boundaries to villages, by numbering plots of ground as cultivated, uncultivated, plains, wet lands, vegetable gardens, fences, forests, * * irrigation works * * pasture grounds and roads, * * he shall register gifts, sales, charities and remission of taxes regarding fields." ² Reference is frequently made to classification according to irrigation facilities. "Those who cultivate irrigating by manual labour," says Kautilya, "shall pay one-fifth of the produce as water rate; by carrying water on shoulders one-fourth of the produce; by water lifts one-third of the produce and by raising water from rivers, lakes, tanks, and wells one-third or one-fourth of the produce." ³ Mention is made of irrigation tanks also, in a subsequent passage. Similar classification for assessment purposes was also in vogue when the Sukraniti was compiled, where we find that "the king should realise one-third, one-fourth, or one-half from places which are irrigated by tanks, canals and wells by rains and by rivers respectively." The Chola kings also recognised this time-honoured distinction between irrigated and unirrigated lands." "The assessment is said, under the Cholas in 1046 (Dv. 75), to be one-sixth of the produce, and this was the recognised Hindu rate from the earliest times. But a quarter of a century later

² Arthashastra, p. 178.

³ Kautilya, Arthashastra, p. 144.

⁴ Sukra Niti, S. B. H., p. 148.

it is described in more detail as a fifth of the produce of forest tracts and of lands on which dry (unirrigated) crops are raised, and a third of the produce of lands below a tank on which paddy is grown.”⁵ The classification of land according to fertility and actual state of cultivation was perhaps the outcome of the Mughal influence.

2. *The Principle of Assessment :*

It is not for us to decide whether the revenue derived from lands by Hindu monarchs was a land tax or rent. But the principle of assessment, as it existed in Shivaji's time, was very old indeed. Agriculture was then, as it is now, the principal industry in India and land revenue naturally formed the principal source of income of the Peshwas as well as of the Chhatrapatis. But while a long lease and a fixed rent were the special features of the land revenue system under the Peshwas, the founder of the Maratha Empire preferred to share the actual produce of the field with his subjects. Sabhasad tells us that an estimate was made of the produce (in grain) of each bigha and after dividing the grains into five shares three of the shares were left to the Rayat; two shares were taken for the

⁵ Lewis Rice, Mysore and Coorg from the Inscriptions, pp. 173 and 174.

government.⁶ In the Rumindei pillar inscription of Asoka mention is made of *Athabhagiye* or the eighth share of the produce claimed by the crown.⁷ 'Bhaga,' as we have already seen, means the portion of produce payable to the government according to Kautilya. According to Vishnu the king was entitled to "a sixth part every year of the grain and a sixth part of all other seeds."⁸ Manu lays down that the king may take the eighth, sixth or twelfth part of the produce⁹ "according to the difference of the soil and labour necessary to cultivate it," adds a commentator.^{9a} Youan Chwang found the Maratha tenants paying one-sixth of the produce as rent.¹⁰ The Chola kings, as Rice tells us, also claimed a sixth of the actual produce in the eleventh century A. D. Sher Shah collected one-fourth and Akbar expected one-third of the total crop though the Quran permits no more than one-tenth. Thus it is clear that although the proportion demanded varied from time to time, the principle that a certain proportion of the total crop should be annually rendered to the state was in operation can be traced from Shivaji back to the time of Asoka if not earlier.

⁶ S. N. Sen, *Siva Chhatrapati*, p. 37.

⁷ Smith, *Asoka*, p. 199.

⁸ S. B. E., Vol. VII, p. 16.

⁹ S. B. E., Vol. XXV, pp. 236-237.

^{9a} *The Institutes of Manu*, by C. G. Haughton, quoted by Thomas, *Revenue Sources of the Mughal Empire*, p. 15.

¹⁰ Watters, *On Youan Chwang*, Vol. I, p. 176.

It should however be noted that this principle was not peculiar to the Hinds or to India. Abul Fazl informs us that the rates in Turkey, Turan and Iran were one-fifth, one-sixth and one-tenth respectively ¹¹ From a specified share of the actual crop in Shivaji's time to a fixed rent assessed after the actual inspection of the harvest, under the Peshwas, was but a natural change.

Rent or land tax did not form the only item of a state's income in any country in any age remote or recent. This was supplemented by customs duties, taxes, cesses, and undefined exactions. But it was the fixed principle of the Maratha financiers that these levies should not in any case exceed the resources of the tax-payers or in their own words taxes should always be *jivan maphik*. Here also consciously or unconsciously they were following the precepts of their ancestors. Manu, for example, lays down that "after due consideration the king shall always fix in his realm the duties and taxes, in such a manner that both he himself and the man who does the work receive their due reward. As the leech, the calf, and the bee take their food little by little, even so must the king draw from his realm moderate annual taxes" ¹² And again, "Let him not cut up

¹¹ Ain-i-Akbari, Gladwin, Vol I, p 349

¹² S B E, Vol XXV, p 236

his own root (by levying no taxes), nor the root of other (men) by excessive greed; for by cutting up his own root (or theirs), he makes himself or them wretched.”¹³ Shukracharya was of opinion that “the king should receive rent from the peasant in such a way that he be not destroyed. It is to be realised in the fashion of the weaver of the garland not of the coal merchant.”¹⁴ Baudhayana recommends the same principle of moderation when he says “Let him also lay just (duties) on other (marketable goods) according to their intrinsic value without oppressing (the traders).”¹⁵ This may be an accidental coincidence, as the principle is one that will recommend itself to the good sense of every statesman in every age. But it cannot be an accident that many of the taxes and duties of the Maratha age can be traced to a remote past. The reason of course is not hard to guess as kings in general and autocrats in particular seldom forget a single item of revenue sanctioned by law or custom.¹⁶ Human nature being the same everywhere neither the Muhammadan nor the Hindu rulers (it is true the Muhammadan rulers often remitted many obnoxious taxes at the time of

¹³ S. B. E., Vol., XXV, p. 238.

¹⁴ Shukra Niti, S. B. H., p. 47.

¹⁵ S. B. E., Vol. XIV, p. 200.

¹⁶ We know how a lawyer commissioned by Charles I rummaged the state papers of England and ultimately discovered to the utter disgust of the English tax-payers the king's right to levy Shipmoney.

their accession to the throne, but it seems that the royal mandate was not either respected in distant provinces, or the prohibited duties were revived before long) were likely to forego any of their old rights in this particular direction and this explains the survival of many of these levies with or without legal sanction even to the present times. Let us now see how many of these taxes, duties and extra cesses had been inherited by the Maratha rulers from their predecessors of the Epic and the Pauranic ages

3 *Taxes and Extra cesses*

1 Forced labour *Begar* or *Beth Begar* as it is called by the Marathas, was certainly one of the most obnoxious, as it was one of the oldest, of these exactions. It is to the credit of the Peshwa Madhava Rao I that he finally abolished it not only on paper but in practice too, as Grant Duff tells us, although it had the sanction of most of the Hindu law-givers of old. Father Manu authorises the king to make mechanics, artisans, and Shudras work for him one day in a month. "Mechanics and artisans, as well as Shudras who subsist by manual labour, he may cause to work (for himself) one (day) in each month." 17 Vishnu also lays down that

"Artizans (such as blacksmiths), manual labourers (such as carpenters), and Shudras shall do work for the king for a day in each month."¹⁸ According to Shukra, "The king should make the artists and artisans to work once in the fortnight."¹⁹ In the Sudhana Kinnaryavadana of the Bodhisattavadana Kalpalata the king Mahendra Sena is made to observe that in no king's dominion can the subject escape forced labour, the king's dues and the king's punishment.²⁰ Forced labour is mentioned by Youan Chwang also, but he says that it was very sparingly imposed.²¹ Lewis Rice says that from inscriptions it appears that towards the close of the thirteenth century forced labour formed one of the imposts levied by Hoysala kings on their subjects.²² It was in vogue under the Muhamadan rulers both in Northern and Southern India. *Begar* is somewhat analogous in principle to the feudal practice that demanded that the tenant should for certain days in the month work in his lord's field, and we need not be surprised if it still survives in some parts of the country. But *begar* is not the only heirloom

¹⁸ S. B. E., Vol. VII, p. 17.

¹⁹ Shukra Niti, S. B. H., p. 148.

²⁰ Bodhisattvavdana Kalpalata of Kshemendra, Sixty-fourth Pallava.

²¹ Watters, On Youan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 176.

²² Mysore and Coorg, p. 176.

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²¹ Watters, On Youan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 176.

²² Mysore and Coorg, p. 176.

that the Maratha rulers inherited from their predecessors

2 *Rahadari* or *Rahdari*, a duty levied on goods or merchandise in transit through land, appears from its Persian name to be a tax of purely Muhammadan origin, but in reality it is an old tax (*Vartani*) frequently mentioned by Kautilya "The officer in charge of boundaries (*Antapala*), says he 'shall receive a pana and a quarter as road cess (*Vartani*) on each load of merchandise'"²³ Again, "In boundaries, ferry men shall receive the toll carriage cess and road cess"²⁴ One of the duties of Revenue Collectors and spies was that they should ascertain the amount of road cess²⁵ Shukra authorised the king to levy this cess not only upon the merchants but all who had occasion to use the royal road "For the preservation and repair of the streets, he should have dues from those who use the streets"²⁶

3 Another minor tax we come across in Shivaji and pre-Shivaji state papers is *Mohimpatti* which literally means an expedition cess²⁷ and we find a similar tax mentioned by Kautilya in relation to the duties of Revenue Collectors and spies "As regards foreign merchandise of superior or inferior quality

²³ Kautilya Arthashastra p 137

²⁴ Kautilya, p 159

²⁵ Kautilya p 180

²⁶ Shukra Niti S B H, p 149

²⁷ Vide the list of taxes compiled by me and embodied in Book I

arriving thither by land or water, they shall ascertain the amount of toll, road-cess, conveyance-cess, military cess, etc.²⁸ But whether these two taxes were analogous in character it is hard to ascertain now.

4 & 5. In Shivaji's time two taxes *Telpatti* and *Tup* by name were not uncommon. *Telpatti* literally means an oil cess and *Tup* is clarified butter. These were in all probability taxes in kind exacted from the manufacturer. We may seek their origin in that passage of *Manu* which authorises the king to take "the sixth part of trees, meat, honey, clarified butter, perfumes, herbs, substances used for flavouring food, flowers, roots, and fruits."²⁹ An identical provision is also found in the *Vishnu Smriti*.³⁰ Nor is *Kautilya* altogether silent about these taxes. We have already referred to villages that supplied dairy produce.³¹ But he includes oil and clarified butter in more unequivocal terms among the items of revenue when he recounts the imposts that come under the head of forts. "Tolls, fines, weights and measures, the town-clerk, the superintendent of coinage, the superintendent of seals and passports, liquor, slaughter of animals, threads, oils, ghee, etc., come under the head of forts."³² We have

²⁸ *Kautilya, Arthashastra*, p. 180.

²⁹ *S. B. E.*, Vol. XXV, p. 237.

³⁰ *S. B. E.*, Vol. VII, p. 16.

³¹ *Kautilya*, p. 178.

³² *Kautilya, Arthashastra*, pp. 65-66.

also seen in the famous Siyadoni inscription how the oilmen levied a voluntary impost of a certain measure of oil in favour of the local temple. This is however a North Indian inscription. But we have already seen that the impost was not at all unknown in Southern India as well. Ghee or clarified butter was one of the "imposts" professedly abolished by Firuz Shah in A.D. 1375.³³ It may therefore be safely concluded that Telpatti and Tup were very old imposts possibly as old as the 4th century B.C. if not older.

6 "Weights and measures" formed one of those imposts that, as we have seen from an extract quoted above, came under the head of the forts in Mauryan days. Kautilya explains the nature of this tax while recounting the duties of the goldsmith in the high road. "Weighing balance and counterweights shall be purchased from the superintendent in charge of them. Otherwise a fine of twelve Panas shall be imposed."³⁴ The standard balance and weight are described at length in the chapter dealing with the office of the superintendent of weights and measures,³⁵ where we further find that "The Superintendent shall charge 4 mashas for stamping weights or measures. A fine of $27\frac{1}{4}$ panas shall be imposed for using unstamped weights or measures

³³ Thomas, *Revenue Resources of the Mughal Empire* p. 5

³⁴ Kautilya, *Arthashastra*, p. 108

³⁵ Kautilya, *Arthashastra*, p. 128

Traders shall every day pay one kakani to the Superintendent towards the charge of stamping the weights and measures." ³⁶ Imported commodities were similarly stamped before they could be offered for sale. "When merchants with their merchandise arrive at the toll-gate, four or five collectors shall take down who the merchants are, whence they come, what amount of merchandise they have brought and where for the first time the sealmark has been made on the (merchandise). Those whose merchandise has not been stamped with sealmark shall pay twice the amount of toll. For counterfeit seal, they shall pay eight times the toll. If the sealmark is effaced or torn (the merchant in question) shall be compelled to stand in ghatikasthana. When one kind of seal is used for another or when one kind of merchandise has been otherwise named, the merchants shall pay a fine of $1\frac{1}{4}$ panas for each load." ³⁷ Every information about this particular impost has been supplied by the Mauryan sage and there is hardly anything left to be desired. We are therefore in a position to estimate its exact character and even a careless comparison will convince one that this Mauryan impost is undoubtedly the prototype of the Marathi *Bat Chhapai*. It has been described by Mr. Elphinstone as a fee on

³⁶ Kautilya, p. 130.

³⁷ Kautilya, Arthashastra, pp. 135-136.

the annual examination of weights (this specially affected the retail traders but fell on others too) and measures.³³ From an entry in the Peshwa's Diaries it appears that a fee was charged for *Chhapa* or stamping of cloth. "The duty on stamping cloth was 5 p.c. on the value of imported cloth and $2\frac{1}{2}$ p.c. on cloth of local manufacture and sellers of unstamped cloths were ordered to be fined."

These instances could be multiplied; even such minor imposts as *Shingshingoti* and *Jhadjhadora* can be traced to Kautilya, Manu, Vishnu, and other law-makers. House-tax is mentioned in the Shukraniti. Lewis Rice informs us that in the sixteenth century, "under Vijayanagar, the marriage tax was abolished causing much rejoicing among all classes."³⁴ Marriage tax or Lagnapatti therefore must have been in existence in the Vijayanagar dominions before its abolition in the sixteenth century. Even Jangampatti, a tax whose very name implied its recent origin (for the Jangamas or Shaiva Lingayets were first organised as a sect towards the close of the 11th century A.D.; the tax therefore must have been levied some time later) was a pre-Shivaji impost. From epigraphic evidence Rice concludes that Jangampatti or

³³ Elphinstone, Report on the Territories recently conquered from the Paishwa.

³⁴ Mysore and Coorg, p. 175.

a tax on the Jangamas existed in 1505 under the Vijayanagar rule.⁴⁰ Octroi duties, such as the Marathas exacted on each load of grain or salt or merchandise carried by men or transport cattle had also been long customary in India. Such imposts are mentioned in the Munoli Panchalinga Deva inscription of Danda-Nayaka Purushottama as well as in the Pehava inscription.⁴¹

4. *Octroi* :

Kautilya gives a long list showing the graduated scales of octroi which varied according to the capacity of the transport animal.

"A minor quadruped as well as a man carrying some load shall pay one masha.

A head-load, a load carried on shoulders, a cow, and a horse shall each pay 2 mashas.

A camel and a buffalo shall each pay 4 mashas.

A small cart 5 mashas ; and a cart (of medium size) drawn by bulls shall pay 6 mashas, and a big cart 7 mashas.

A head-load of merchandise $\frac{1}{4}$ masha ; this explains other kinds of loads."⁴²

An impost similar to Ashva Zakat is mentioned in the Harsha Inscription where we find

⁴⁰ Mysore and Coorg, p. 174.

⁴¹ Bühler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 184.

⁴² Kautilya, pp. 158, 159.

that 'one drama on every horse was assigned by the ' of horse dealers from the Northern country''⁴³

We need not further pursue this question. The instances we have already furnished will suffice to establish that most of these taxes, cesses and imposts of the Maratha times had long been in existence before the foundation of the Maratha empire. It is not a discredit to them that they continued to levy some or most of these, but it is really very creditable in those days of autocracy and irresponsible government that from time to time these Maratha rulers (characterised as mere plunderers, robbers and scoundrels by the late Dr Vincent Smith in his Oxford History of India) rose to the occasion and abolished many harassing duties and obnoxious imposts as did the Hindu rulers of Vijayanagar⁴⁴ and the Muhammadan emperors of Delhi⁴⁵.

5 *Rasad*

It will not be out of place to enquire into the antiquity of a practice peculiar to the revenue system of the Marathas. When

⁴³ Knelhorn Ep Ind Vol II, p 129

⁴⁴ Rice, Mysore and Coorg p 170

⁴⁵ Thomas Revenue Resources of the Muḥal Emperor Abul Fazl Ain-i-Akbari and Badayuni's Muntakhab ul Labub

a Revenue Collector was appointed, the government made him pay a large sum in advance, which the officer was allowed to realise from the revenue of his District with interest. This advance money was known as Rasad. This practice is at least as old as the Shukranitisara, where we find that "Having determined the land-revenue of the village, the king should receive it from one rich man in advance, or guarantee (for the payment) of that either by monthly or periodical instalments."⁴⁶

6. Agriculture :

All Maratha rulers from Shivaji to Madhava Rao II took particular care to improve and extend agriculture, to reclaim waste lands, to found new villages and market towns, to induce traders, artisans and cultivators from other territories to come and settle, and thereby contribute to the wealth and prosperity of the kingdom as well as to the revenue of the king. Shivaji ordered that "New Rayats (who) will come (to settle) should be given cattle. Grain and money should be given (to them) for providing themselves with seeds. Money and grain (should be) given for their subsistence (and) the sum should be realised in two or four years according to the means (of the Rayats). In

⁴⁶ Shukraniti, S. B. H., p. 149.

this manner should the Rayats be supported " 47

This policy was not only continued but further developed under the Peshwas. In a letter dated 1774 addressed to Mahadeva Nana Shet, Mamlatdar of Amod, he is instructed to bring the waste lands under cultivation and to advance Tagar to the Rayats. The details of concessions to be made for the reclamation of waste lands are given in another document, "Should any person bring an entirely rocky ground under cultivation by covering it with earth and by providing embankments around it, half the land shall be given him in Inam and the remaining half shall be continued rent free for twenty years and at reduced rate for five years more and shall after that period be subjected to full assessment. Should any person reclaim cultivable land on the sea coast by providing embankments, one-fourth of the land shall be given to him in Inam and the remaining portion shall be continued rent-free and at reduced rates for such periods as upon a consideration of the money and labour spent may seem fit ' This was not all. Irrigation works were either constructed by the State or a substantial grant was made to encourage and further private enterprise. In times of famine "no fee was levied from cultivators purchasing bullocks and buffaloes in case they were in want of cattle for agricultural purposes"

These were the various concessions made for improving and extending agriculture under the Peshwa regime. It may be added that similar concessions were made for the introduction of new, and for the improvement of infant, industries as well as for the foundation of new market towns.

Let us now see what was done, or what in theory at least was recommended, by Hindu writers on polity for the improvement and development of agricultural industry. Shukra simply lays down that "If people undertake new industries or cultivate new lands and dig tanks, canals, wells, etc., for their good, the king should not demand anything of them until they realise profit twice the expenditure."⁴⁸ Kautilya recommends similar concessions more than once. "Unprepared lands," he observes, "shall not be taken away from those who are preparing them for cultivation."⁴⁹ This is however not much. In a subsequent passage he goes a step further, provides for a reduced rate of rent for reclaimed waste lands as an inducement for undertaking their cultivation, but even there he is not too liberal. He still expects something from the cultivator. "Fields that are left unsown may be brought under cultivation by employing those who cultivate for half the share in the produce

⁴⁸ Shukra Niti, S. B. H., p. 148.

⁴⁹ Kautilya, p. 52.

or those who live by their own physical exertion may cultivate such fields for $\frac{1}{4}$ th or $\frac{1}{5}$ th of the produce grown, or they may pay (to the king) as much as they can without entailing any hardship upon themselves with the exception of their own private lands that are difficult to cultivate.”²⁰

But we should remember that this recommendation applies to those lands only which remain fallow for want of hands alone. Their cultivation does not demand any unusual hardship or present any exceptional difficulty. The Mauryan sage offers really tempting terms for improving irrigation facilities and reclaiming waste or uncultivated tracts. ‘In the case of construction of new works, as tanks, lakes etc., taxes (on the lands below such tanks) shall be remitted for five years. For repairing neglected or ruined works of a similar nature, taxes shall be remitted for four years. For improving or extending water works, taxes shall be remitted for three years. In the case of acquiring such newly started works by mortgage or purchase, taxes on the land below such works shall be remitted for two years. If uncultivated tracts are acquired for cultivation by mortgage, purchase or in any other way, remission of taxes shall be for two years. Out of crops grown by irrigation by means of wind power or bullocks or below tanks, in fields, parks, flower gardens, or in any other way, so

much of the produce as would not entail hardship on the cultivator may be given to the Government. Persons who cultivate the lands below tanks, etc., of others at a stipulated price, or for annual rent, or for certain number of shares of the crops grown, or persons, who are permitted to enjoy such lands free of rent of any kind, shall keep the tanks, etc., in good repair; otherwise they shall be punished with a fine of double the loss." And finally he lays down that the "kings shall never demand of such of his subjects as live in the tracts of low quality * * He shall, on the other hand, supply with grain and cattle those who colonise waste lands." ⁵¹ The resemblance between these regulations of Kautilya and Sukra and those of the Marathas is too striking to be dismissed as accidental. The Marathas were Hindus, their rise had been preceded by the revival of Hinduism of a living liberal and militant type, and they had inherited the old traditions of the land with the indigenous faith, it is therefore but fair to acknowledge that their land revenue system was nothing but an evolution of the old Hindu system transmitted almost in its entirety by the Muhammadans. The Muhammadans no doubt made a change here and an addition there, but that did not materially affect its real character, and to look at it whether

⁵¹ Kautilya, pp. 216 and 302.

under the Muhammadans or the Marathas is but to recognise it as the time honoured system that prevailed in Mauryan and possibly pre-Mauryan India.

7. *The Economic Policy :*

The economic policy of the Maratha government was also a relic of the past. Shivaji tried to control and regulate the price of such articles as areca-nut, salt, etc., according to the needs of the people. The Peshwas went a step further and dictated to the manufacturer what should be the length of a particular kind of cloth, how much gold thread of what quality should be used in manufacturing a headgear and so forth. It is really with surprise that the student of the history of the Maratha administrative system lights on the following regulations in Kautilya's Artha Shastra. The "Superintendent of Commerce shall ascertain demand or absence of demand for, and rise and fall in the price of various kinds of merchandise which may be the products either of the land or of water and which may have been brought in either by land or by water path. He shall also ascertain the time suitable for their distribution, centralisation, purchase, and sale. That merchandise which is widely distributed shall be centralised and its price enhanced. When the enhanced rate

became popular, another rate shall be declared. The merchandise of the king which is of local manufacture shall be centralised ; imported merchandise shall be distributed in several markets for sale. Both kinds of merchandise shall be favourably sold to the people. He shall avoid such large profits as will harm the people.”⁵² Perhaps the state interfered so much with the trade of the country, both in the Mauryan as well as in the Maratha age, because Hindu kings not only identified themselves with the state but also considered themselves to be in the *locus parenti* with regard to their subjects.

⁵² Artha Sastra, p. 118.

CHAPTER VI

ARMY

The army of the Peshwa was organised on the model of the Mughal army, the famous Maratha tactics of harassing the rear of the enemy, plundering the convoy and cutting off the foragers, had also been tried with eminent success by the famous Abyssinian statesman and general Malik Ambar in pre-Maratha days. The famous Hindu rulers of Maharashtra boasted in their inscriptions of their huge elephants and strength in elephantry, their descendants in the 17th and 18th centuries, on the other hand, relied more on their horse than on those huge monsters whose courage could not be always counted on, specially when rockets and artillery were freely used. It is therefore certain that a wide departure had been made in the military organisation from the conventional rules of the old Hindu tacticians and theorists. But at the same time some of their practices and principles had survived in the Maratha army.

1. Bargir and Shiledar

The distinction between Shiledar and Bargir force was quite well-known when the

Sukranitisara was compiled. Thus we find the author discriminating between two kinds of army "untrained or trained, officered by the state or not officered by the state; equipped by the state with arms, or supplying their own arms and ammunitions, bringing their own vehicles or supplied with vehicles by the State."¹ These apply equally well to the Shiledar and the Bargir; the Shiledar, it is true, had been placed by Shivaji under the orders of the Sarnobat, but properly speaking they were not officered by the State. Similarly the distinction between three kinds of strongholds or gad, kot and janjira, was known to Kautilya."² The Mauryan sage recommends the appointment of many officers with each military unit to prevent treachery. "Elephants, cavalry, chariots, and infantry shall each be officered with many chiefs inasmuch as chiefs, when many, are under the fear of betrayal from each other and scarcely liable to the insinuations and intrigues of an enemy. The same rule shall hold good with the appointment of boundary-guards and repairers of fortifications."³ We learn from Sabhasad that exactly for the same reason Shivaji never entrusted the sole charge of any of his strongholds to a single commander, but appointed no less than three officers of equal

¹ Shukraniti, S. B. H., p. 217.

² Artha Shastra, pp. 56 and 57.

³ Kautilya, Artha Shastra, p. 62.

rank but of different caste to exercise conjoint authority over each fort.⁴

2 Pension to minor Children and Widows :

After the Afzal Khan incident Shivaji had directed that the widows of those who had fallen in the affray and had no sons should be maintained by (a pension) half (their husbands') pay. The wounded were given rewards of two hundred, one hundred, twenty-five or fifty Hons per man according to the nature of their wound.⁵ The practice of granting suitable pensions to the widows and children of fallen soldiers was continued under the Peshwas, under the style of *Bala parveshi* and *Nan parveshi*.⁶ This system had a long past as will be evident from the following passages from Kautilya's Arthashastra "The sons and wives of those who die while on duty shall get subsistence and wages. Infants, aged persons, or diseased persons related to the deceased servants shall also be shown favour."⁷ The practice prevailed under the Chola kings of Southern India as Rice informs us on the testimony of their inscriptions "A grant of land was made for the family of the

⁴ Sen, Sivachhatrapati, p. 30

⁵ Sen, Sivachhatrapati, p. 25

⁶ Peshwanchi Bakhar, p. 34

⁷ Arthashastra, p. 309

fallen man which in some early cases is styled *bal-galchu* but is mostly called a *kalnad*, though the term *sivane* is used in the west. Similar grants of rent-free land, called *kodaji*, were made to men who fell in battle.”⁸ It may be noted that the practice survived till the fall of the Maratha empire.

3. *The Pendharis and Chortas :*

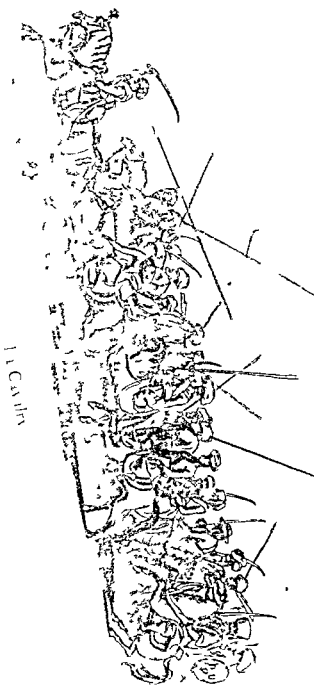
The Pendharis formed, as we all know, an integral part of the Maratha force. Plunderers by profession they accompanied every Maratha expedition and shared their ill-gotten spoils with the state. For they had to pay a duty called *Palpatti* or tent duty which amounted to 25 p.c., of their entire booty for the license granted to them. Occasionally professional thieves or *chortas*, as they were called in Peshwa times, were also sent both by the Maratha generals and the Habshi rulers of Janjira to harass the enemy subjects. It is noteworthy that Kautilya recommends the use of “brave thieves and wild tribes who make no distinction between friend and foe,” in order to weaken the enemy. But whether their duty corresponded exactly with those of the Maratha *chortas* is not clear. The thieves mentioned by Shukracharya, however,

⁸ Rice, Mysore and Ooorg, p. 171.

must have been the progenitors of the Pendharis, for they shared their spoil with the king. But it seems that they had to carry on their thieving operations at the king's order but independently of any military assistance from the state, and thus acted in the same manner as the *chortas* "If thieves steal something from other's kingdom by the king's order they should first give one-sixth to the king and then divide the rest among themselves."⁹ Brihaspati also refers to licensed free-booters in unmistakable terms. "When anything has been brought from a hostile country by free-booters, with the permission of their lord, they shall give a sixth part to the king and share (the remainder) in due proportion." The proportion as recommended by Brihaspati is also worth noting, as individual exertion and enterprise are taken into consideration. "Four shares shall be awarded to their chief, he who is (specially) valiant shall receive three shares; one (particularly able) shall take two; and the remaining associates shall share alike."¹⁰ It is therefore clear, that the Maratha Pendharis could boast of a very long lineage, if that counts for anything, and they had the bluest blood among thieves and marauders. Perhaps they were not sufficiently well grounded in Sanskrit to know that they had in their

⁹ Shukranti, S. B. H., p. 211.

¹⁰ S. B. E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 241.



1. Cavern

favour the incontestable authority of no less than two great political philosophers and one great law-giver, or they might have pleaded prescriptive right and vested interest when Lord Hastings waged a war of extermination against them. As it is, they had more faith in the good old law of might, and when a mighty government refused to let them ply their old trade, they had perforce to beat their swords into ploughshares. Some of them, the strongest no doubt, became Chiefs and Nawabs, but there again the old law held good.

CHAPTER VII.

JUDICIAL INSTITUTIONS.

1. *Judicial officers :*

Perhaps the influence of the old Hindu law-givers was most in evidence in the judicial system of the Marathas. The criminal cases were tried by the Patil, an appeal lay from him to the Kamavisdar or the District officer, and the highest judicial authority was the king himself, who was generally represented by the chief Nyayadhish. The Nyayadhish was invariably a Brahman and this naturally reminds one of Manu's injunction, "but if the king does not personally investigate the suits then let him appoint a learned Brahman to try them."¹ We find in Shivaji and pre-Shivaji documents mention of Hazir Majalasis as final courts of trial consisting of learned Brahman lawyers and civil and military officers of the state. We read also of Sabha Naiks or presidents of the courts and Mahaprashnikas or chief examiners. It appears from the Shukranitisara that Sabha-Naiks or Adhyakshas and Mahaprashnikas were not unknown when that work was compiled.²

¹ B. B. E., Vol. XXV, p 254.

² S. B. H., pp. 186 & 189.

Shukra tells us that the Pradvivaka is so called because he asks questions, and from the old Marathi documents it appears that the Mahaprashnika also used to do exactly the same thing. So much for the highest tribunal, the judge-president and the chief examiner.

For the judicial authority of the village and district officers also, the Maratha system had the sanction of the old Hindu works. For we read in the Vishnu Smriti "If any offence has been committed in a village, let the lord of that village suppress the evil and (give redress to those that have been wronged). If he is unable to do so, let him announce it to the lord of ten villages; if he too is unable, let him announce it to the lord of a hundred villages; if he too is unable, let him announce it to the lord of the whole district.³ The lord of the whole district must eradicate the evil to the best of his power."⁴ The same procedure is recommended by the sage of the Mahabharata.⁵ The question of civil procedure and evidence shall be discussed later, but it will not be out of place here to examine the antiquity of the punishments inflicted on convicted criminals.

³ It may be incidentally not
ginal Sanskrit text is 'Desht
Prant.'

⁴ S. B. E., Vol. VII, p. 15.

2 *Mutilation*

Capital punishment was very seldom inflicted and mutilation was almost unknown in the earlier days of the Maratha empire. This punishment however became common under Nana Fadnavis. Among the papers of the second Madhava Rao have been preserved long lists of convicts condemned to lose their hands and feet. One of these lists enumerates the following sentences for theft

Capital punishment	20 men
Right hand and left leg to be cut off	13 men
Right hand only to be cut off	18 men
Right hand and one ear to be cut off	4 men
Right hand and right leg to be cut off	1 man
One ear to be cut off	1 man

And one man was to be first paraded ludicrously dressed and then nailed to death. The same punishment was inflicted for causing grievous hurt. The Maratha government did not spare the relatives of thieves who were frequently thrown into prison. And convicts were asked to perform a Prayashchitta or religious penance over and above the corporal punishment they had already undergone.

Mutilation and execution are mentioned by Shukracharya among "various species of methods of punishment,"⁶ but they were in use

in still older times. We read in the *Manu Samhita* for instance, "If out of arrogance he spits (on a superior), the king shall cause both his lips to be cut off. If he lays hold of the hair (of a superior) let the king unhesitatingly cut off his hands."⁷ The offences mentioned above were considered as assault, but mutilation has been recommended as an appropriate punishment for theft also by father *Manu*. "For stealing more than fifty palas it is enacted that the hands of the offender shall be cut off; but in other cases, let him inflict a fine of seven times the value. For stealing men of noble family and especially women and the most precious gems (the offender) deserves corporal (or capital) punishment. For stealing large animals, weapons, or medicines, let the king fix a punishment, after considering the time and the purpose (for which they were destined). For selling cows belonging to Brahmins, for piercing the nostrils of a barren cow and for stealing other cattle belonging to a Brahmin the offender shall forthwith lose half his feet."⁸ And finally the lawgiver lays down as a general principle: "with whatever limb a thief in any way commits (an offence) against men, even of that the king shall deprive him in order to prevent (a repetition of the

⁷ S. B. E., Vol. XXV, pp. 303 & 304

⁸ S. B. E., Vol. XXV, pp. 310 & 311.

crime " ⁹ Nor is Manu by any means the only legislator in favour of this horrible punishment. Vishnu also recommends the same punishment for assault and theft. According to him "with whatever limb an inferior insults or hurts his superior in caste, of that limb the king shall cause him to be deprived " ¹⁰ "He who has stolen a cow, a horse, or a camel, or an elephant, shall have one hand or one foot cut off. A stealer of gold, silver or clothes at a value of more than fifty Mashas shall lose both hands." ¹¹ Mutilation as a form of punishment is mentioned in the Upaguptavadana and the Hasti-avadana of Bhodisattvavadanakalpalata

3 *Punishment of the offender's relatives :*

If mutilation is an old form of punishment, the practice of arresting and imprisoning the relatives of thieves is no less old Kautilya says, "Sons or wives of murderers and thieves shall, if they are found not in concert, be acquitted, but they shall be seized if found to have been in concert " ¹² It is very difficult if not absolutely impossible, for sons and wives of thieves, to exculpate themselves from the charge of connivance with their fathers and husbands,

⁹ S B E, Vol. XXV, p 312

¹⁰ S B E, Vol VII, p. 27

S, B. E, Vol VII, pp 31 & 32

¹¹ Kautilya, Arthashastra, p 287.

as the presumption is always against them. The only result of this rule was that in Maratha days the wives and sons of thieves and other offenders were arrested and imprisoned as a matter of course. Sometimes the Maratha officers arrested the relatives of absconding offenders in order to induce them to come out of their hiding and surrender themselves.

4. *Penance* :

Let us now enquire why the Chhatrapatis and the Peshwas after them, deemed it incumbent on themselves to prescribe some religious penance for convicted offenders. The king was regarded as not only the chief magistrate, but also as the ecclesiastical head of the state, and regulator of social and religious customs and practices. "He shall protect the castes and orders," says Gautama, "in accordance with justice, and those who leave (the path of duty) he shall lead back (to it)."¹³ Certain crimes made the offender an outcast, and Vishnu tells us that "social intercourse with such criminals is also a high crime. He who associates with an outcast is outcasted himself after a year; and so is he who rides in the same carriage with him, or who eats in his company, or who sits on the same

bench, or who lies on the same couch with him."¹⁴ It is therefore clear that the Chhatrapatis and the Peshwas compelled the offender to undergo some religious penance in order to prevent the subversion of caste and order by contact with such offenders conscious or unconscious, intentional and unintentional. Moreover, it was the duty of the king, as Vashishtha tells us, to correct the evil-minded in every way

5 *Adultery*

Adultery was another offence for which very severe punishment was inflicted on the female offender. In the year 1746 one Bhikaji Gauli and his paramour were fined one khandi of ghi. The next year the wife of a Muhammadan carter was sent to prison, and in 1755 a Koli woman, Randki by name, was condemned to slavery, but she was saved from this terrible fate at the prayer of her kinsmen and was let off with a fine of Rupees fifty only. A fine of five hundred Rupees was inflicted on one Shankraji Chauhan for committing adultery in the year 1755-56; a girl was actually sold in slavery for failing to rise above the hankering of the flesh.¹⁵ Under the administration of the elder Madhava Rao, it was decided that adultery with a willing woman deserted by her husband was no offence

¹⁴ S. B. E., Vol. VII, p. 133.

¹⁵ Peshwas' Diaries, Balaji Baji Rao, Vol. II, pp. 66-68.

at all,¹⁶ but in two ordinary cases imprisonment was the punishment inflicted.¹⁷ In the year 1781-82 an adulteress, Ahili by name, was set at liberty after her nose had been cut off, while the male offender was let off with a fine only. A few years later another woman was released from prison on her father standing surety for her good conduct.¹⁸

Let us now enquire how far these punishments had the sanction of the old lawgivers, or to what extent they were the inevitable corollary of the regulations laid down by them.

Kautilya recommends three punishments for adultery. When any "person abets a thief or an adulterer, he as well as the woman who voluntarily yields herself for adultery shall have their ears and nose cut off or pay each a fine of 500 panas, while the thief or the adulterer shall pay double the above fine."¹⁹ In a subsequent chapter dealing with sexual intercourse, Kautilya lays down, that "A woman who, of her own accord, yields herself to a man shall be slave to the king."²⁰ Again, "A relative or a servant of an absentee husband may take the latter's wife of loose character under his own protection. Being under such protection, she shall wait for the return of her husband. If her husband, on

¹⁶ Peshwas' Diaries, Madhava Rao I, Vol. II, p. 209.

¹⁷ *Ibid*, p. 210.

¹⁸ Peshwas' Diaries, Madhava Rao, II, Vol. III, p. 108.

¹⁹ Arthashastra, pp. 284-85. ²⁰ Arthashastra, p. 290.

bench or who lies on the same couch with him" ¹⁴ It is therefore clear that the Chhatrapatis and the Peshwas compelled the offender to undergo some religious penance in order to prevent the subversion of caste and order by contact with such offenders conscious or unconscious, intentional and unintentional. Moreover, it was the duty of the king, as Vashishtha tells us, to correct the evil-minded in every way.

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¹⁴ S B E, Vol VII, p 133

¹⁵ Peshwas Diaries, Balaji Baji Rao, Vol II, pp 66-68

at all,¹⁶ but in two ordinary cases imprisonment was the punishment inflicted.¹⁷ In the year 1781-82 an adulteress, Ahili by name, was set at liberty after her nose had been cut off, while the male offender was let off with a fine only. A few years later another woman was released from prison on her father standing surety for her good conduct.¹⁸

Let us now enquire how far these punishments had the sanction of the old lawgivers, or to what extent they were the inevitable corollary of the regulations laid down by them.

Kautilya recommends three punishments for adultery. When any "person abets a thief or an adulterer, he as well as the woman who voluntarily yields herself for adultery shall have their ears and nose cut off or pay each a fine of 500 panas, while the thief or the adulterer shall pay double the above fine."¹⁹ In a subsequent chapter dealing with sexual intercourse, Kautilya lays down, that "A woman who, of her own accord, yields herself to a man shall be slave to the king."²⁰ Again, "A relative or a servant of an absentee husband may take the latter's wife of loose character under his own protection. Being under such protection, she shall wait for the return of her husband. If her husband, on

¹⁶ Peshwas' Diaries, Madhava Rao I, Vol. II, p. 209.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 210.

¹⁸ Peshwas' Diaries, Madhava Rao, II, Vol. III, p. 108.

¹⁹ Arthashastra, pp. 284-85. ²⁰ Arthashastra, p. 290.

his return, entertains no objection, both the protector and the woman shall be acquitted. If he raises any objection, the woman shall have her ears and nose cut off, while her keeper shall be put to death as an adulterer."²¹ It is therefore clear that Ahili would have lost her nose, and the *Koli girl would have been the king's slave* like many of their fellow criminals even if they had been tried by a Mauryan court instead of a Maharashtra Nyayadhish. It should be noted at the same time that the principle laid down by Madhava Rao I had the approval of Kautilya who says "Those women who have been rescued from the hands of thieves, from floods, in famine, or in national calamities, or who, having been abandoned, missed, or thrown out as if dead in forests, have been taken home may be enjoyed by the rescuer as agreed upon."²² Narada is more explicit on this point. "A man is not punishable," says he, "as an adulterer for having intercourse with the wife of one who has left his wife without her fault, or of one impotent or consumptive, if the woman herself consents to it."²³ In the case above referred to, the woman had been abandoned by her husband and would have died of starvation, but for the food and shelter afforded to her by the man in question, and evidently she had given her consent.

²¹ Arthashastra, p. 291.²² Arthashastra, p. 292.²³ S. B. E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 177.

Slavery and imprisonment of an adulteress was perhaps the direct consequence of a regulation of Apastamba which says, "If a young man has had intercourse with a marriageable girl, his property shall be confiscated and he shall be banished. Afterwards the king must support such women and damsels, and protect them from defilement. If they agree to undergo the prescribed penance he shall make them over to their (lawful) guardians."²⁴ It goes without saying that when the king was expected to protect them, he should keep them under strict guard and watch, and as he had to support them, he should in his turn exact some work from these unfortunate women. The Marathas kept them in hill-forts and made them work there, the last portion of Apastamba's regulation however indirectly authorises the state to hand over a misled daughter to her father (lawful guardian) when the latter makes himself responsible for her moral welfare (stands surety for her future good conduct).

Manu's punishment for this not unnatural offence was very horrible indeed. "If a wife, proud of the greatness of her relatives or her own excellence, violates the duty which she owes to her lord, the king shall cause her to be devoured by dogs in a place frequented by many."²⁵ We do not know whether this law was

²⁴ S. B. E., Vol. II, p. 163.

²⁵ S. B. E., Vol. XXV, p. 319.

ever put into practice by the ancient Hindus, it was not in use in the Maratha days. Though the Peshwas on some rare occasions condemned a troublesome rebel to be trampled to death by an infuriated elephant, we do not know any instance of a misguided woman being thrown to hungry dogs.

Another punishment which Manu recommends for "a woman who pollutes a damsel" ²⁶ also deserves our notice, as a similar punishment has been prescribed by Vashishtha for the adulteress herself. "If a Shudra approaches a female of the Brahman caste," Vashishtha lays down, 'the king shall cause the Shudra to be tied up in Virana grass and shall throw him into a fire. He shall cause the head of the Brahmani to be shaved and her body to be anointed with butter, placing her naked on a black donkey, he shall cause her to be conducted along the high road' ²⁷. King Brahmadata of Benares had inflicted this punishment on his unfaithful queen Soshumba, as we read in the Devavataravadana of Kshemendra's Bodhisattvavadanakalpalata. It was, however, not in general use when the Marathas established their sway in the Deccan.

6 *Slaves*

We have read of slavery as a punishment for adultery. Let us now enquire into the rights

²⁶ S B E Vol XXV, p 318

²⁷ S B E Vol XVI, p 109

of slaves and the law of manumission. According to Manu, "a slave cannot have any property, the wealth he earns belongs to his master."²⁸ In Maratha days a slave could not only earn on his own account but he could inherit property ; in fact slaves were often permitted to purchase their liberty.²⁹ But the Maratha practice, though contrary to the codes of Manu, had the authoritative support of Chanakya who says, "A slave shall be entitled to enjoy not only whatever he has earned without prejudice to his master's work, but also the inheritance he has received from his father."³⁰ Marriage of a female slave under the Maratha law was equivalent to her manumission, and Kautilya lays down almost the same principle when he writes, "When a child is begotten on a female slave by her master, both the child and its mother shall at once be recognised as free."³¹ The Marathas only went a step further, they liberated their female slaves, whether these were married at their own instance or otherwise, with free men or fellow slaves.

7. *Procedure in a civil suit :*

Civil suits were, in the first instance, tried by a Panchayet or a court of arbitration consisting

²⁸ S. B. E., Vol. XXV, p. 326.

²⁹ Broughton, Letters written in a Maratha Camp.

³⁰ Kautilya, Arthashastra, p. 232.

³¹ Arthashastra, p. 233.

of village elders. The origin of such courts can be traced to the regulations of Narada, Brihaspati and Shukracharya. "Gathering (kula), corporations (shreni), assemblies (gana), one appointed by the king and the king (himself) are invested with power to decide law suits."³² Brihaspati was of opinion that "Cultivators, artizans (such as carpenters or others), artists, moneylenders, companies of (tradesman), dancers, persons wearing the token of religious order (such as Pasupatas), and robbers should adjust their disputes according to the rules of their own profession. And relatives, companies (of artizans), assemblies (of co-habitants) and other persons duly authorised by the king, should decide lawsuits among men, excepting causes concerning violent crimes."³³ The judicial authority of shrenis, kulas and ganas is acknowledged by Shukra also.³⁴ It is clear that the Maratha Panchayet was not quite identical with kulas (families), ganas (communities) and shrenis (corporations), but it is not impossible that it was from this prescriptive right of these corporate bodies of old, that the Maratha village community, a corporate body in itself, derived its judicial powers, which was exercised by the Panchayet, subject to the

³² Narada, S. B. E., XXXIII, pp. 6 and 7.

³³ S. B. E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 280.

³⁴ Shukranitisara, S. B. H., p. 185.

sanction of the state as in the old Hindu days. Brihaspati's assemblies of co-habitants seems to be more akin to, if not the actual prototype of, the village Panchayet.

The plaintiff is called Purvavadi in Marathi documents and the defendant is styled as Uttarvadi. This naturally reminds one of Purvapaksha and Uttarapaksha of the Shukranitisara,³⁵ which however stood for the plaint and the answer. The plaintiff first submitted a written statement and the defendant then submitted his own version of the case in writing. Then evidence was heard and judgment delivered. Finally the losing party had to execute a deed called Jayapatra or Yejitkhat in favour of the winner. This is the procedure recommended by the old law-givers. Narada lays down, that "the claimant, after having produced a pledge the value of which has been well ascertained, shall cause the plaint to be written. The defendant immediately after having become acquainted with the tenor of the plaint, shall write down his answer, which must correspond to the tenor of the plaint."³⁶ Brihaspati says, "The part called the declaration, the part called the answer, the part called the trial, and the part called the deliberation of the judges regarding the *onus probandi*: these are the four parts of the judicial proceeding. The plaint is

³⁵ S. B. H., p. 196.

³⁶ S. B. E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 24.

called the first part, the answer is the second part, the trial is the third part, and the judgment is the fourth part.”³⁷

The practice of granting a Jayapatra to the winner was well known when Shukra compiled his work on polity, as will appear from his description of the document. “A Jayapatra,” says he, “is one that contains an account of the case or suit brought forward, arguments for and against and also the decision.” Every student of the Maratha administrative system knows that this is equally true of Marathi Jayapatras or Yejitkhats.

8. *Evidence :*

Let us now enquire how far the old rules about evidence were adhered to in the Maratha courts. In boundary disputes and suits about proprietorship, the evidence of the village officers of the artisans or Balutas and the officers of the neighbouring villages was mainly relied on. This law is at least as old as the Maurya Empire. We read in Kautilya's Arthashastra, “In all disputes regarding the boundary between any two villages neighbours or elders of five or ten villages shall investigate the case on the evidence to be furnished from natural or artificial boundary marks. Elders

³⁷ S. B. E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 289.

among cultivators and herdsmen, or outsiders who have had the experience of former possession in the place, or one or many persons (not) personally acquainted with the boundary marks under dispute, shall first describe the boundary marks and then wearing unusual dress shall lead the people to the place. Disputes concerning fields shall be decided by the elders of the neighbourhood or of the village. All kinds of disputes shall depend for their settlement on the evidence to be furnished by the neighbours." ³⁸ Manus held that "witnesses from neighbouring villages should be called to give evidence in a boundary dispute on failure of witnesses from the two villages." ³⁹ According to Narada "In all quarrels regarding landed property or boundaries, the decision rests with the neighbours, the inhabitants of the same town or village (the other) members of the same community, and the senior inhabitants of the District. As also with those living outside on the outskirts of the village and who live by the tillage of the fields situated in those parts and with herdsmen, bird-catchers, hunters and other inhabitants of the woods. These men shall determine the boundary." ⁴⁰ Brihaspati says, "in a dispute regarding a house or field, the decision belongs, to the neighbours as well as to the inhabitants of that town or

³⁸ Kautilya, pp. 214-215.

³⁹ S.B.E., Vol. XXV, p. 300.

⁴⁰ S.B.E., Vol. XXXIII, pp. 155-156.

village, or to members of the same society, and to the elders (of that district). Likewise, to husbandmen, artisans, servants, cowherds, hunters, gleaners, diggers of roots, fishermen, kinsmen, mischiefmakers, and robbers." ⁴¹ The Balutas and Alutas fall under the artisans, cowherds, gleaners, etc. Shukracharya is more explicit on this point and his regulations had more direct resemblance with the Maratha practice. He was of opinion that "the documents of gifts, sale and purchase about immovable goods are valid only when approved by the receivers and having the Gramapas or village officers as witnesses." These regulations explain why village officers, artisans and elders from the neighbouring villages were called to give evidence in disputes about boundary and fields.

9. *Trial by ordeal:*

Brihaspati recommends a curious way of deciding a boundary dispute when no witness or reliable evidence was available. "In default of witnesses and signs, even a single man, agreeable to both parties, may fix the boundary, wearing a red garland of flowers and a red cloak, putting earth on his head adhering to truth, and having kept a fast."⁴² A disputed boundary was

⁴¹ S.B.E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 352.

⁴² S.B.E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 352.

fixed by a Patil of one of the contending villages; during the reign of Chhatrapati Shahu, not indeed with red garlands and red cloaks on and earth on his head, but he walked over the boundary with a cow's hide on his head and putting a garland of *tulsi* beads round his throat. This in fact was a decision by ordeal.

Trial by ordeal was very popular in Southern India under the Maratha rule. Their various forms have already been described in Book II.⁴³ We shall now confine ourselves to an enquiry into their antiquity here.

Ordeal as a means of ascertaining truth has been in practice from very old times. Gledner suggests that ordeal by a red-hot axe is referred to in the Rig Veda. Griffith discovered in another passage of the Rig Veda reference to fire and water ordeals. According to Weber, Tula or the balance ordeal is referred to in the Satapatha Brahmana. Macdonnel and Keith do not agree with any of these scholars. Schlagintweit, Weber, Ludwig, Zimmer and others thought that fire ordeal was mentioned in the Atharva Veda, but Bloomfield and Whitney have disproved their contention. Macdonnel and Keith are of opinion that although the term *divya* or ordeal is not found in the Vedas proper, the practice is referred to in the Vedic literature,

⁴³ Also see a very able paper by Mr. Bhaskar Vaman Bhat in the Bharat Itihas Sanshodhak Mandal's Tiritiya Sammelan Vritta.

for instance in the Panchavimsha Brahmana and the Chhandogya Upanishad.⁴⁴

Father Manu provides for trial by ordeal. He says "The judge may cause the party to carry fire or to dive under water, of severally to touch the heads of his wives and children. He whom the blazing fire burns not, whom the water forces not to come quickly up, who meets with no speedy misfortune, must be held innocent on the strength of his oath. For formerly when Vatsa was accused by his younger brother, the fire, the spy of the world, burned not even a hair of his by reason of his veracity."⁴⁵ According to Apastamba, "In doubtful cases they shall give their decision after having ascertained the truth by inference, ordeal and the like means."⁴⁶ Vishnu not only recommends trial by ordeal but lays down detailed regulations about the performance of ordeal by balance, fire, water, and sacred libation, about the time of their performance as well as the case and the party to be tried by each of these ordeals.⁴⁷ Ordeals by balance, fire, water, poison and metal are recommended by Yajnavalkya.⁴⁸ He also lays down that an ordeal should be performed at sunrise in the presence of the king and Brahmans and after the party

⁴⁴ Macdonnel and Keith, Vedic Index, Vol. I, pp. 317, 318, 364-365.

⁴⁵ S.B.E. Vol. XXV, p. 274. ⁴⁶ S.B.E., Vol. II, p. 168.

⁴⁷ S B E, Vol VII, pp. 52-61.

⁴⁸ Tulāguyāpo visham koshō divyāniha vīśuddhaye.

has performed a bath. Narada says, "Proof is said to be of two kinds, human and divine. Human proof consists of documentary and oral evidence. By divine proof is meant the ordeal by balance and the other (modes of divine test). Where a transaction has taken place by day, in a village or town, or in the presence of witnesses, divine test is not applicable."⁴⁹ Divine test is applicable (where the transaction has taken place) in a solitary forest, at night, or in the interior of a house, and in cases of violence or of denial of a deposit."⁵⁰ Brihaspati also recognised the two-fold division of evidence, human and divine. Divine test according to him was nine-fold.⁵¹ Sukracharya testifies not only to the legality but also to the antiquity of trial by ordeal. He says "In the matter of decision of cases by the divya, fire, poison, vessel, water, virtue, and vice, rice and oaths—these are prescribed by the sages."⁵² Ordeal by water is mentioned in the Padmavatyavadana of Bodhisattvavadan-kalpalata.

Foreign travellers also testify to the popularity of trial by ordeal in India. The Chinese traveller Youan Chwang visited India during the seventh century A.D. He gives a detailed account of different forms of ordeal. He says,—

⁴⁹ Compare Marathi 'Gohi āsta ravānāthi.'

⁵⁰ S.B.E., Vol XXXIII, pp. 30-31.

⁵¹ S.B.E., Vol. XXXIII, p. 297.

⁵² S.B.H., Shukra-nitisara, p. 204.

"These (ordeals) are by water, by fire, by weighing and by poison. In the water ordeal the accused is put in one sack and a stone in another; then the two sacks are connected and thrown into a deep stream; if the sack containing the stone floats and the other sinks the man's guilt is proven. The fire ordeal requires the accused to kneel and tread on hot iron to take it in his hands and lick it, if he is innocent he is not hurt, but he is burnt if he is guilty. In the weighing ordeal the accused is weighed against a stone; and if the latter is lighter the charge is false, if otherwise it is true. The poison ordeal requires that the right hind leg of a ram be cut off, and according to the portion assigned to the accused to eat, poisons are put into the leg, and if the man is innocent he survives, and if not the poison takes effect."⁵³

The celebrated Muhammadan astronomer Abu Rihan Alberuni accompanied Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni to India on one of his several expeditions and has left an interesting account of the manners and customs of the Hindus as he saw them. He mentions ordeal by water, libation water, balance, heated metal and fire.⁵⁴ Trials by ordeal have been mentioned in several South Indian inscriptions, as Lewis Rice tells us, "The earliest method consisted in the accused

⁵³ Watters, *On Youan Chwang*, Vol. I, p. 172.

⁵⁴ Sachau, *Alberuni's India*, Vol. II, pp. 159-160.

making oath in the presence of the god holding at the same time the consecrated food. If guilty, it would choke him on partaking of it. Instances of this ordeal appear in 1241 and 1275. In the first the payment of some money was in question, the second was a boundary case. The ordeal of grasping a red-hot iron rod or bar in the presence of the god Hoyasaleshvara is recorded in 1309. A later form of ordeal was perhaps a severer test and consisted of making oath as before and then plunging the hand into boiling Ghi. If no injury resulted, the defendant won (his cause). Instances occur in 1580 and 1677.”⁵⁵ Thus, the continuity of this practice has been established beyond doubt from the Vedic times to the first decade of the 19th century when the Maratha empire came to an end.

It is also noteworthy how some of the most popular ordeals in the Maratha days conformed in every minute detail to the rules of the old sages. We read of one instance in which the ordeal consisted of a simple oath taken by touching Shahu's feet. This ordeal had the sanction of Shukra who says—“He has to touch the feet of superiors, * * or swear by the gods, ‘let me be cursed with the burden of sins, let all my merits be extinguished.”⁵⁶ The two

⁵⁵ Lewis Rice, Mysore and Coorg from the Inscriptions, p. 177.

⁵⁶ S.B.H., p. 205.

most popular ordeals in the Maratha period were those by fire and heated metal, *agni-divya* and *rava*

Narada on Fire ordeal :

Let us now compare the Maratha practice with regard to these two ordeals with the regulations of Narada who has devoted a long chapter to ordeals. Says Narada, "I will propound next, the excellent law regarding ordeal by fire. The interval between every two circles is ordained to measure thirty-two Angulas. Thus the space covered by the eight circles will measure two hundred and fifty-six Angulas. He should place seven leaves (on his hands with seven threads) A professional blacksmith who has practice in working with fire, and whose skill has been tested on previous occasions, should be caused to heat the iron in fire. An iron ball fifty palas in weight having been repeatedly made fiery, sparkling and red-hot, a pure Brahman who reveres the truth should address it as follows. * * * This prayer having been carefully written on a leaf and recited he should fasten the leaf on his head, and after having done so, should then give him the iron ball. Having bathed and stepped into the space covered by the eight circles, he should seize the fiery ball, take his stand on one circle and

walk slowly through the seven others. The man must not put it down again till he passed through the whole of the measured ground. On reaching the eighth circle, he may drop the fiery ball, * * In this way the ordeal by fire should always be performed. It is adapted for every season except summer and very cold weather. All sores and scars on his hands should be marked with signs previously, and one should examine the hands again afterwards (and look after) the dots with which the sores have been marked. If it does not appear whether (either of) the two hands is burnt, he shall take and seven times crush grains of rice in his hand, with all his might. The grains having been crushed by him, if the members of the court should declare him to be unburnt, he shall be honourably released as being innocent. If he is burnt he shall receive due punishment."⁵⁶

We read the following account of an agni-divya in a Marathi document. "On Wednesday my hands were bandaged and sealed. The next day, Thursday, the aforesaid Pandit sat with the Brahmans, Watandars and men of note on the banks of the Godaveri, opened the bandage of my hands in the presence of the god, and had them rubbed with rice, and then they were washed. The signs on the two hands

⁵⁶ S. B. E., Vol. XXXIII, pp. 108-111.

were all marked and an iron ball fifty palas or 168 tolas 2 mas has in weight was duly weighed and thrice heated in fire. They bound a *bhalapatra* on my forehead, placed seven *ashvathva* leaves on my hands and bound them with thread. Then they placed the ball on my hand and ordered me to walk over seven circles and drop the ball on the eighth. Accordingly I walked over the seven circles and dropped the ball on some grains which had been kept in the appointed place and the grains took fire. * * Then the aforesaid Pandit, and all the assembly inspected my hands and they were shown to Ganesh Dattaji. The hands were not even slightly burnt, by fire. Then they again bandaged and sealed my hands and after two *prahars* of day and four *prahars* of night had elapsed they took me to the assembly on Friday (the Dvadashi) morning. The bandage was taken off and the aforesaid Pandit and the people assembled inspected the hands. Both the hands were shown to Ganesh Dattaji. No wound, not even one of the size of a sesame seed, was seen on the hand. The signs on the hands noted at the time of the ordeal were carefully compared, there was no difference whatever." ⁵⁷ Almost all the details of Narada's regulations were carefully attended to in the abovementioned ordeal. In fact the old practice

continued with very little variation. This conclusion will be further confirmed by a comparison between Alberuni's account of an ordeal by heated metal and a Marathi account of rava in an old Mahajar.⁵⁸ Trial by ordeal survived in Southern India till the downfall of the Marathas and it existed in a modified form in Travancore.⁵⁹

It is clear that many of the Maratha institutions were nothing but relics of the Hindu age.⁶⁰ How far these were transmitted by the Muhammadan rulers of India and how far they were revived by the Hindu kings has yet to be ascertained. No one, who has read Persian *farmans* can be blind to their striking resemblance with Marathi documents of similar nature. Eventually it may be found that the Marathas were not a little indebted to their Muhammadan rulers for their civil and military institutions. Whatever might have been the extent of their indebtedness, whether they improved upon the system they had inherited or whether they were mere blind imitators, the continuity of the indigenous system cannot be denied. The contribution of the Muhammadans to this interesting evolution is certainly worth studying.

⁵⁸ Watanpatra Nivadapatra, Ed. Parasnis and Mawji, p. 7.

⁵⁹ Drury, Life and Sports in Southern India, pp. 66, 69 and 70.

⁶⁰ Even the practice of *Dharna* had the sanction of the old *Dharma Shastras* as Professor Washburton Hopkins has pointed out. See *Cambridge History of India*, Vol., I.

APPENDICES

A

The Arabs in Sind (Book III)

"The toleration which the native Sindians enjoyed in the practice of their religion, was greater than what was usually conceded in other countries; but it was dictated less by any principle of justice or humanity, than the impossibility of suppressing the native religion by the small number of Arab invaders. When time had fully shown the necessity of some relaxation in the stern code of Moslim conquest, it was directed, that the natives might rebuild their temples and perform their worship, and that the three per cent., which had been allowed to the priests under the former government, should not be withheld by the laity for whom they officiated. Dahir's prime minister was also retained in office, in order to protect the rights of the people, and to maintain the native institutions; while Brahmans were distributed throughout the provinces to collect the taxes which had been fixed." *The History of India as told by its own Historians* by Sir H. M. Elliot and Professor John Dowson, Vol. I, pp. 468-469. Also see Elphinstone, *History of India*, pp. 302-303.

State Departments (Book III).

In the Panchobh copper-plate inscription of Samgramgupta, Superintendents of kine, buffaloes, goats and mares are mentioned (*gomahiṣūbivaḍvādhyakṣūdi*). The inscription probably is not later than the 12th century A.D. See *Journal of the Bihar Orissa Research Society*, Vol. V, Part IV, p. 589.

C

Evolution of Marathi Danapatras (Book III).

, Of the innumerable Marathi documents that have come down to us, not a few are grant deeds. They are worth studying not merely because they yield interesting information about the various taxes that the landholder had to pay but also because of the unbroken link with the past that they furnish in their style and form. Vishnu lays down the following rules to be observed in drawing up a grant deed or *Danapatra* : " To those upon whom he had bestowed (land) he must give a document, destined for the information of a future ruler, which must be written upon a piece of (cotton) cloth, or a copper plate and must contain the names of his fathers immediate ancestors, a declaration of the extent

of the land, and an imprecation against him who should appropriate the donation to himself, and should be signed with his own seal”¹ Let us reproduce a Danapatra of Chhatrapati Shahu and see how far the writer conformed to the above rules. The document runs as follows

Vedamūrti Ganesbhaṭ wa Bālabmbhaṭ bin Bāpūbhaṭ upanām Purandare, gotra Bhāradvāj, sūtra Asvalāyan, vāstavya Kasbe Sāsavad, ynāñin huzūr Śāhūnagarānājk kille Sātāra yethil mukkāmin svāmīsannidh yeūn vidit kelen kin, kailāsvāsī Bālājī Pandit Pradhān yānnin āhmāns Mauje Khānvadī, Tarph Karhephthār, Prānt Punen, yethil jirāyat jamin uttam pratīchī chāvar 1 yekūn bighe tis svarājya wa mongalāi yekūn dutarphā dekhil inām tijāi wa sardeśmukhi kulbāb wa kulkānū, hallipattī wa pestarpattī, jal taru, trna, kāstha, pāsān, nidhiniksepsahit kherij hakkadār karūn inām deūn Mauje majkūrchyā dastānt bād ghālūn patren dilhīn tyāpramānen anbhavīt āhon Tarī Mahārājānīn sadarhūpramānen inām karār karūn hallin nūtan sahotrā wa nādgaundī inām deūn vansa paramparenen chālavāven yāvisin patren karūn dilhīn pāhjet hmanūn vidit karūn Pandit maśārnilhe yānchin patren ānūn dākhavilī Tyāvarūn manās ānūn he bhale brāhman satpātra snānsandhyādī satkarmī nirata yānchen chālavihiyā svāmīs wa svāmiche rājyās sreyaskar aisen jānūn

svāmī yāñjvarī kṛpālū hoūn yāñsī Pañdit
 maśārnilhe yāññīn Mauje majkūrpaikīn jirāyat
 uttam pratīchī jamīn chāvar pāv ekūn tīs bighe
 svarājya wa moṅglāī ekūn dutarphā darobasta
 inām tijāī wa sardeśmukhī hallīpattī wa pestarpattī
 kul bāb wa kulkānū jal, taru, tṛṇa, kāṣṭha pāṣāṇ,
 nidhinikṣepsahit kherīj hakkadār vañśaparam-
 pareṇēn inām dilhā. Tyāpramāṇēn karār
 karūn hallīn nūtan sadarīl jamīnīs sahotrā wa
 nūḍgauṇḍī yāsī wa yāñche vañśaparampareṇēn
 inām karūn dilhā yevisīñ dharmasāstrāchīn
 vachaneṇ.

Svadattān paradattān vā yo harechcha
 vasuṇḍharāñ. Saṣṭhivarṣa sahasrāṇi viṣṭāyāñ
 jāyate kṛmī. Svadattā duhitā bhūmi pitṛdattā
 sahodarī. Anyadattā bhavenmātā yo haret triṣu
 saṅgamī. Dānapalānayormadhye dānāt śreyo nu
 pālanaṁ. Dānāt svargamavāpnoti pālanaḍachyu-
 taṁ padaṁ. Yeṇēnpramāṇēn dharmasāstrāchīn
 vachaneṇ yukta patreṇ karūn dilhīñ āhet tarī
 tuhmīñ Mauje majkūrpaikīn sadarhūpramāṇēn
 pāvchāvar jamīn chatuḥśīmā pūrvak yāsī wa
 yāñche vañśaprampareṇēn inām chālavanēn
 Prativarṣīñ novīn patrāchā ākṣep na karṇēn.
 Patreṇ Rājyābhiṣek śake go Subhānu nāma
 saṁvatsare Aśvina śhuddha pañchamī Bhāuma-
 vāsara yevisīñ patreṇ.

2. Sanadipatreṇ (1 Mukhypatra, 1 Mokadam).

3 Chitnisi (1 Deśmukh Despānde, 1 Desūdhikārī
1 Rājāsī Mādhavarāv Pandit Pradhān) ekūn 5

Kārkīrd Rājāsī Mādhavarāv Pandit Pradhān
Sātāriyas tyāche tarphenen Ganes Viṭṭhal yāche
kārkīrdīs sikkē jāle Paravāngī Vyankāṇipant "

It is to be noted that, in the above grant deed the extent of the land has been defined, an imprecation against him who should appropriate the donation has been inserted, and the grant deed has been sealed in conformity with the regulations of Viṣṇu. In some Marathī Danapatra the Sanskrit imprecation is substituted by a Marathī one which threatens the appropriator of the land with the sin of cow-slaughter if he is a Hindu and the infamy of killing a pig if he is a Muhammadan.

This however, is not all. The phrase "halli paṭṭī va pestarpaṭṭī kulbab va kulkānu jal taru, trna, kashtra, pasan, nīdhinīksep sahit kherij hakkadār' demands our special notice as it has been in use in donatory deeds for centuries before the rise of Shivaji or the accession of Shahaji to power. It may also be added that in many Marathī grant deeds (that we need not quote *in extenso*) the act of donation is described as dhārāika or dhārādatta which corresponds to the latter part of the Sanskrit phrase sasuvāna-dhara pūrāakam of the pre-Marathā copper-plate grants. As for the other phrase which we have quoted above let us see how frequently it

occurs in South Indian copper-plate grants, we may dismiss the North Indian practice as comparatively less important as we are discussing here the evolution of South Indian grant deeds.

Maharashtra proper had been formerly ruled by the Chalukyas, the Rashtrakutas, the Shilahras and the Yadavas. It is from the Yadava kings of Devgiri that the Muhammadans first conquered the land of the Marathas. We shall therefore examine the copper-plate grants of these four families and compare the terms of grant with those of the grant deeds of Shahu Chhatrapati already referred to. A grant deed executed by Govinda III Rashtrakuta in 716 of the Shaka era² defines the grant as *sodraṅgaḥ saparikaraḥ sadaśūparādhaḥ sabhūtapātapratyāyaḥ sotpadya-mānari (vī) shṭikaḥ sadhānyahiranyādeyo chachā (chā)labhātapraveśyaḥ sarvvarājakīyānām ahas-taprakṣh(e)paṇiya*. The terms of the Kauthem grant of Vikramaditya V. of the later Chalukya dynasty³ is more similar to the terms of the Marathi Sanad. They are: *Savṛkshamālākulaḥ sadhānyahiranyādeyaḥ rājakīya(nā)m anaṅguli prekṣhaṇiyaḥ nidhi nidhāna sametaḥ ghaṭikāch-chhatrachāmarādisahitaḥ saśukl(aka)ḥ sarv-vanamasya iti*.

² Paithan plates of Govinda III, Kielhorn Ep. Ind., Vol. III, p. 109.

³ Fleet, Ind. Ant., Vol. XVI, p. 24.

In the Kharepatan plates of Rattaraja (Shilahar) it is recorded that a village in the Ratnagiri District was granted to the king's preceptor, Abhoja Sambhu and the grant is defined as *pūrvadattā devadāya vā (brā) hmadāya varjyam* which corresponds to Marathi *kherij hakkadīr karūn*. Another donation of a Shilahara king Bhoja II by name⁶ was *dhārā-pūrvvakam* analogous to Marathi *dhārāika* or *dhārādatta* and the terms of the grant are *sarvva bādhā parihāram sarvva āya-vissuddham rājakiyānām anamguli prekshsniyam*. These show that some of the terms we came across in Shahu's Sanad were already in use when the Rashtrakuta Chalukya and Shilahara princes inscribed those donatory plates. Let us now examine the copper plate inscriptions of the Yadavas and the Hindu-monarchs of Vijayanagar who in some respects can be regarded as the immediate Hindu predecessors of the Maratha kings of the house of Bhonsla.

About the year 922 of the Shaka era (or 1000 A. D.) Mahasamanta Bhīllama II granted certain lands to twenty one Brahmans and the fact is thus recorded in the Sangamner copper plate inscription⁷

Evamishām dvijanam pītrpaitīmahoparjītam
Matulingitāṭsamāvāsitam , Arjunodhikāgrāmam

Kielhorn Ep. Ind. Vol. III, 1, 301

⁶ Kolhapur Inscr. p. 101; Kielhorn Ep. Ind. Vol. III, pp. 213, 216

⁷ Kielhorn Ep. Ind. Vol. II, p. 220

tathā Laghuarjjuṇoḍhigrāma Laghu vavvula-
vedagarāma (dv) yābhyam̐tarāṁ savṛksha-
mālākulaṁ chāchatuḥsīmāparyantaṁ sāṣṭādaśa
prakṛtyopetaṁ vāpikūpatadāgārāmasahitaṁ satṛ-
ṇakā (ṣṭha) pāṣhāṇopetaṁ sa (sa) kala samasto-
petaiṁ, etc.

The first couplet of the Sanskrit imprecatory verse also is inserted in this inscription. In fact innumerable illustrations of this last practice may be given from old Indian donatory inscription as is well known to all students of Indian History. In the Kalas Budrukh plates of Bhīllama III (Shaka year 948),⁹ we read that the gift was made to twenty Brahmans with great honour and water in hand—hastodakam̐ kṛtvā and the terms also are strikingly similar to those of the Maratha Danapatras. They run as follows:—
Sasīmā-paryam̐taṁ savṛkshamālākulaṁ satṛṇa
kāshṭhaṁ sa prabhṛti-kānuka-vishaya-āśrayaṁ
sarid-vāpī-kūpa-kūpikā-tadāga-dīrghikā-jalasthala-
khanyākara-mṛdvanaushadhi-prāśāda-gopur-ope-
taiṁ sarvvāyasthāna-sahitaṁ namasyama kara-
vāṭottaraṁ putra pautrādyanvy-opabhogyam
achāṭa-bhāṭa praveśam pūrvva datta
dvijadāyadevadāya varjjaṁ vasad bhojya
vṛittiṁ Kalasa nāmanaṁ grāmaṁ pradadau, of
course with the usual imprecation. The Gaddak
inscriptions of Viraballala deva of Hayasala
dynasty¹⁰ records the gift of the village Hombalalu

⁹ Ind. Ant., Vol. XVII, p. 121.

¹⁰ Fleet, Ind. Ant., Vol. II, p. 301.

to Chaddrabhushan Panditadeva (Shaka year 1114) with—*nīdhinīkshepa jalapāshānārāmādi sahitam tribhogyābhymtaramasābhogateshja (jah) svāmyayuktam sulkadāmdādi sakala dravyo-pārjjanopetam*, etc. It is needless to multiply these instances. Let us only quote another Yadava inscription that of Rama Chandra Deva the last king of the dynasty. A grant of Rama Chandra Deva dated 1212 saka or 1291 A D, records that under the orders of Shri Rama Sri Krishna Deva governs the whole province of the Konkan. For the sake of causing the prolongation of Shri Ram Chandra Deva's life etc, he giveth to Brahmans—with gold and water, the village of Anjora—with its hamlets limited to its proper bounds with its grass timber, water and forest trees mines and hidden treasures together with the land marks—*Pālisahitah svasīmāparyamtah trnakashthodakopetah savīkshamalākulah nīdhī mkshepasahitah chaturāghātopetah hīranyodaka pūrvvakam pradattah*¹⁰. This certainly reads like Shahu's Danapatra quoted above.

It may however be objected that between the fall of the Yadavas of Devgiri in the earlier part of the 14th century and the rise of Shivaji in the middle of the 17th, there is an interval of about two hundred and fifty years. But in the meantime

the style and the form of these grant deeds were continued in the Deccan by the Hindu kings of Vijayanagar. The Nallur grant of Harihara II ¹¹ runs as :

Vṛitti dvādaśasaṃyuktaṃ tamimaṃgrāmaṃ
uttamaṃ sarvamānyaṃ chatussīmāsaṃyutam cha
samaṃtataḥ nidhi nikṣhepa pāṣhāṇa sidhdha
(sā) dya jalānvataṃ.

Akṣhānyāṇāgāmisaṃyu (ktaṃ A) ṣṭābho
(gyaṃ) subhūtidam vāpīkūpataṭākaiścha kach-
chhāramaiścha śobhitam putra pautrādi-
bhirbhogyaṃ kramā (d) āchamdra tārakam.

Almost the same phrases are repeated in the Satyamangalam plates of Deva Raya II (dated 1484 A.D.),¹² and the Krishnapura inscription of Krishna Raya (dated 1529).¹³ The kingdom of Vijayanagar came to an end in 1565 when Ramaja was defeated and slain at Talikota near Raichur but a branch of the family known as the Karnata dynasty survived till 1664.¹⁴ Lands were given to Brahmans and grant deeds were executed in their favour by minor Hindu chiefs in Maharashtra. Some of these pre-Shivaji Sanads have come down to us and they fully explain the continuity of the form and style of

¹¹ V. Venkayya, Ep. Ind., Vol. III, p. 123.

¹² E. Hultzsch, Ep. Ind., Vol. III, p. 38.

¹³ Hultzsch, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 400.

¹⁴ Rice, Mysore and Coorg, p. 120.

these grant deeds for a period of about ten centuries. This in short is the history of the evolution of the innumerable Marathi grant deeds that the labours of Sane, Rajwade, and Parasnis have made familiar to-day to every student of Maratha history

BOOK IV

EVOLUTION OF THE MARATHA INSTITUTIONS
THE MUHAMMADAN CONTRIBUTION

CHAPTER I

REVENUE PRINCIPLES

1. Non-interference of Muhammadan Rulers :

In the preceding book, an attempt has been made to point out the intimate relation between the actual practices of the Maratha Government and the theories laid down by old Hindu political thinkers. It has been fairly established that the Maratha administrative institutions had been evolved from their ancient Hindu prototypes. But the part played by the Muhammadan rulers of India in this interesting evolution was by no means insignificant. For centuries they had governed the land and had given the administration the shape in which the Marathas inherited it from them. The vast kingdom of Vijayanagar had come to an end before the rise of Shivaji, and although the Hindu system of administration still survived in many of the petty Hindu States of the South, it would have been altogether impossible for Shivaji and his successors to revive the old Hindu institutions, had they been quite extinct in the hilly district, that formed the nucleus of the Maratha empire and had once been

an integral part of the Bahmani Kingdom. Like the present rulers of the Bombay Presidency the Muhammadan conquerors of the Deccan did not aim at an administrative revolution. They kept the system they found in existence at the time of their conquest practically intact, but made a change here and an addition there to suit their taste and the theories they had inherited from Muslim theologians. When, therefore, the Hindu Padshahi was founded by Shivaji he had to follow in the footsteps of his Musulman predecessors and continue their policy of conservation and reform. So the evolution went on unchecked and people could hardly perceive any change in the main theories and principles of their Government. Maratha Subhedars replaced Muhammadan Subhedars, and the Maratha Chhatrapati occupied the position of the Muhammadan Sultan; but the revenue was still paid in Muhammadan coins, the revenue terms were still Persian, the sanads and instructions issued to Revenue collectors were mere translation of Persian farmans of the Muhammadan rulers.

We have before us the financial theories of old Hindu law-givers, but the principles laid down by them had been embodied by Muhammadan rulers in their instructions to Revenue officers. The Marathas simply continued the same form, the same terms and almost the same

language in their appointment letters. Thus the survival of the old Hindu principles was due to the Muhammadans, and the Marathas in their turn helped the survival of the Muhammadan forms and practices.

2. Abul Fazl on the Duties of a Revenue Collector :

The whole process will be evident from a comparison of a Persian farman and a Marathi sanad so far as the revenue principles were concerned. We have already seen how the old Hindu political philosophers had advocated concessions for cultivation of waste lands, financial help at the time of distress and humane and considerate treatment of the cultivators. These very principles had been strongly emphasised when Abul Fazl enumerated the duties of an ideal Revenue Collector. "The Collector of the Revenue," says he, "should be a friend of the agriculturist. Zeal and truthfulness should be his rule of conduct * * * He should not cease from punishing highway robbers, murderers and evil-doers, nor from heavily mulcting them, and so administer that the cry of complaint shall be stilled. He should assist the needy husbandman with advances of money and recover them gradually. * * * He should ascertain the extent of the soil in cultivation and weigh each several portion in the

scales of personal observation and be acquainted with its quality. The agricultural value of land varies in different districts and certain soils are adapted to certain crops. He should deal differently, therefore, with each agriculturist and take his case into consideration. He should take into account with discrimination the engagements of former collectors and remedy the procedure of ignorance or dishonesty. He should strive to bring waste lands into cultivation and take heed that what is in cultivation fall not waste. He should stimulate the increase of valuable produce and remit somewhat of the assessment with a view to its augmentation * * * He should be just and provident in his measurements. Let him increase the facilities of the husbandman year by year, and under the pledge of his engagements, take nothing beyond the actual area under tillage.”¹ Abul Fazl also recommends the employment of able and honest inspectors and surveyors to help the Revenue Collector in the work of assessment.²

3 *Farmans and Sanads :*

These were the principles that the Muhammadan Emperors endeavoured to enforce ; they were never tired of repeating them in every

¹ *Amul-Akbari*, Jarrett, Vol. II, pp 43, 44

² *Ibid*, p. 45.

farman they issued to their Revenue officers. Two such farmans have been translated by Prof. Jadunath Sarkar in his *Studies in Mughal India*³ and though the documents are very lengthy, their intrinsic interest and value will fully justify the quotation of some extracts from them. After the usual preamble, it is laid down—"That officers of the present and future and *amils* of the Empire of Hindusthan from end to end, should collect the revenue and other [dues] from the *mahals* in the proportion and manner fixed in the luminous Law and shining orthodox Faith, and [according to] whatever has been meant and sanctioned in this gracious mandate in pursuance of the correct and trust-worthy Traditions,—

'And they should not demand new orders every year, and should consider delay and transgression as the cause of their disgrace in this world and the next.

First.—They should practise benevolence to the cultivators, inquire into their condition, and exert themselves judiciously and tactfully, so that [the cultivators] may joyfully and heartily try to increase the cultivation, and every arable tract may be brought under tillage.

Second.—At the beginning of the year inform yourself, as far as possible, about the condition of every ryot, as to whether they are engaged in

³ Pp. 168-196.

cultivation or are abstaining from it. If they can cultivate, ply them with inducements and assurances of kindness ; and if they desire favour in any matter show them that favour. But if after inquiry it is found that, in spite of their being able to till and having had rainfall, they are abstaining from cultivation, you should urge and threaten them and employ force and beating. Where the revenue is fixed proclaim to the peasants that it will be realised from them whether they cultivate the land or not. If you find that the peasants are unable to procure the implements of tillage, advance to them money from the State in the form of *taqavi* after taking security.

* * * * *

Sixth.— * * * fix such an amount that the ryots may not be ruined

Seventh—You may change fixed revenue into share of crop, or *vice versa*, if the ryots desire it ; otherwise not

* * * * *

Ninth.—In lands subject to fixed revenues, if any non-preventable calamity overtakes a sown field, you ought to inquire carefully, and grant remission to the extent of the calamity, as required by the truth and the nature of the case. And in realising revenue in kind from

the remnant, see that a net one-half [of the produce] is left to the ryots.

* * * *

Fourteenth.—Concerning lands under fixed revenue: If a man builds a house on his land he should pay rent as fixed before; and the same thing if he plants on the land trees without fruits. If he turns an arable land, on which revenue was assessed, for cultivation into a garden, and plants fruit trees on the whole tract without leaving any open spaces [fit for cultivation], take Rs. $2\frac{3}{4}$, which is the highest revenue for gardens, although the trees are not yet bearing fruit. But in the case of grape and almond trees, while they do not bear fruit take the customary revenue only, and after they have begun to bear fruit, take Rs. $2\frac{3}{4}$, provided that the produce of one canonical *bigha*, which means 45×45 ShahJahani yards, or 60×60 canonical yards, amounts to Rs. $5\frac{1}{2}$ or more.

* * * *

Fifteenth.—If any man turns his land into a cemetery or *serai* in endowment, regard its revenue as remitted.

* * * *

Eighteenth.—In *muqasema* lands, if any calamity overtakes the crop, remit the revenue to the amount of the injury. And if the calamity

happens after reaping the grain or before reaping, gather revenue on the portion that remains safe '.

This farman was addressed to Muhammad Hashim, Dewan of Gujrat, in the 11th year of Emperor Aurangzib 'Alamgir. The document is so lengthy that it has not been possible to quote it in full with all the items and the commentaries. The second document translated by Prof Sarkar was addressed to one Rasikdas. This officer is ordered to make a detailed enquiry about the condition of cultivation in the districts under his charge and the document reads almost like the concluding portion of Annaji Datto's circular letter quoted in Book I. The Emperor orders, ' You should inquire into the real circumstances of every village in the *parganahs* under your *diwans* and *amins*, namely, what is the extent of the arable land in it ? What proportion of this total is actually under cultivation, and what portion not ? What is the amount of the full crop every year ? What is the cause of those lands lying uncultivated ? Also find out, what was the system of revenue collection in the reign of Akbar under the *diwani* administration of Tudar Mal ? Is the amount of the *sair* cess the same as under the old regulations, or was it increased at His Majesty's accession ? How many *mauzas* are cultivated and how many desolate ? What is the cause of the desolation ? After inquiring

into all these matters, exert yourself to bring all arable lands under tillage, by giving correct agreements (*qaul*) and proper promises, and to increase the first-rate crops. Where there are disused wells, try to repair them, and also to dig new ones. And assess their revenue in such a way that the ryots at large may get their dues and the Government revenue may be collected at the right time and no ryot may be oppressed."

Rasikdas is further enjoined to make local enquiry through his *amils* as to the condition of the cultivation and to take a statistics of cultivators and ploughs, encourage the cultivator to increase the sowing and the extent of cultivation and to improve the quality of the produce, to make the amils work hard in order to induce the runaway peasants to return, to gather cultivators from all sides by offering them various inducements and to devise means for the reclamation of waste lands.⁴ The outstanding arrears were to be realised by instalments "according to the condition of the ryots."⁵ The exaction of prohibited *abwabs* was to be checked and prevented.⁶ And finally the papers of the records were to be gathered at the right time.⁷

The Marathas were no rivals of the Mughals in their literary achievements, and their language did not permit the flowery style and pompous

⁴ Studies in Mughal India, p. 191.

⁵ *Ibid*, p. 192.

⁶ *Ibid*, p. 194.

⁷ *Ibid*, p. 196.

grandiloquence for which Persian literature is famous. It will be therefore futile to expect that the terms of a Marathi appointment letter should in every detail and word for word tally with the revenue regulations quoted above. The Marathi document is terse, succinct and brief and lacks the preamble and the ornate style of a Mughal *fai man* but a close comparison of the two leaves no doubt that the one was inspired by the other so far as the general revenue principles were concerned. In the appointment letter of Lakshman Bhikaji Mamlatdar of Wan and Dindori for instance we find the following instructions laid down for his guidance.

1. The villages in the above-mentioned Parganas should be surveyed. The lands should be classed as superior, ordinary and inferior and also as jrayat and bagayat, patsthal and motsthal and their area should be ascertained and the result should be reported to the Amin. The Amin should fix the rates to be charged and the assessment should be made accordingly.

2. The waste and fallow lands should be brought under cultivation within two or three years from the current year. If you fail to bring waste lands under cultivation, you will lose your appointment.

3. If any serious disturbance or rebellion takes place, remission of rent will be made according to the custom of the land.

4. Fadfadmas will be fixed by the Government hereafter and paid accordingly.

5. Kauls of istawa have been granted to certain villages in these Parganas. You should make an enquiry about them and having ascertained which villages are unprofitable, report the result to the Amin. The Amin will consider the report and make necessary arrangements by which you should be guided.

6. Full information regarding the Parganas should be furnished to the Amin. He would then lay down the system of Jamabandi according to which collection should be made.¹

Of course we do not come across all the instructions quoted from the farman addressed to Muhammad Hashim. But it should be remembered that while Muhammad Hashim was the Dewan of a province, Lakshman Bhikaji was in charge of a few Parganas only. Similarly the farman addressed to Rasikdas also differs in certain details from that addressed to Muhammad Hashim. But some of the revenue regulations that we miss in Lakshman Bhikaji's sanad will be found in other sanads granted by the Peshwas' Government. Thus reference has already been made in Book II of tagai or taqavi loan mentioned in the Mughal farmans. In the same book mention has also been made of efforts made by the Peshwas' Government to induce runaway

¹ P.D., Vol. III, pp. 289-295.

peasants to return to their villages and resume the cultivation of their deserted fields. In Book I a quotation has been made from Sabhasad to show how Shivaji also wanted his revenue officers to use conciliation and reassurances in gathering together cultivators from all sides with praiseworthy diligence. And the surveyors and inspectors mentioned by Abul Fazl naturally reminds one of the Maratha Pahanidars. This establishes beyond doubt the close intimacy between the Maratha and the Mughal systems.

But it will be a mistake to suppose that the Muhammadans simply transmitted the old Hindu system and did not add to it anything of their own. It has not been possible to quote the two documents in full, but it is necessary to mention that in some of the omitted instructions the Emperor Aurangzib makes distinction between tithe-paying and rent paying lands which is certainly Islamic in origin. This distinction naturally did not find any place in the Maratha system which as we have already noticed (in Book II) recognised the claims of Brahmans to various concessions.

Item fourteenth of Muhammad Hashim's farman claims our special attention, as it deals with jrayat lands converted into bagayat and also with special concession made for costly plantations which do not yield any immediate profit to the cultivator. The principle, as laid

down here, is based on the orthodox Muhammadan theories of finance. Aghnides says that the rates for trees, palms and sugarcane plantations, according to al-Mawardi were ten, eight and six dirhams respectively. "The above taxes," says he, "concerning trees applied only in case they were closely planted in such a way that cultivation of the intervening space was impossible, for isolated trees growing in cultivated fields were exempt from tax for the land was then taxed as a cultivated land."⁹ This principle the Marathas did not accept *in toto*. They laid special rates for the orchards and sugarcane plantations, while cocoanut palms as well as Undani and jack fruit trees were taxed as individual trees. But no tax was levied until the palms and trees began to pay. Thus in this case the Marathas did not either reject or accept in full the principle of taxing palms and other trees, as enunciated by Muhammadan theologians and introduced in India by Musulman conquerors, but somewhat altered it to suit their purpose.

4. *Paymalli Compensation* :

It was not infrequently that the Marathas accepted the policy or principles, good, bad, or indifferent, as they had been transmitted by their Muhammadan predecessors. One such instance is found in the Maratha custom of

⁹ Aghnides, Mohammedan Theories of Finance, p. 379.

compensating aggrieved peasants and villagers for *paymalli* or loss caused by the Peshwas' forces when encamped near a village by treading on the crops in the neighbouring fields. Abdul Hamid Lahori, the author of *Badshah Nama*, tells us that such *paymalli* compensation was paid by Emperor Shah Jahan in the seventh year of his reign. 'His Majesty's sense of justice and consideration, for his subjects,' says Abdul Hamid, "induced him to order that the *Bakshi* of the *ahadis* with his archers should take charge of one side of the road, and the *Mir-atish* with his matchlock-men should guard the other, so that the growing crops should not be trampled under foot by the followers of the royal train. As, however, damage might be caused *daroghas*, *mushrifs* and *amins* were appointed to examine and report on the extent of the mischief so that raiyats, and jagirdars under 1000, might be compensated for the individual loss they had sustained' ¹⁰. It may however appear from the language of Abdul Hamid that this compensation was a pure act of kindness and grace on the part of Shah Jahan, and not an obligation. Of course there is no obligation for an autocrat, but it was really a common practice of the Delhi Emperors and was continued by Shah Jahan's successors. Irvine says, "Even in the best time of the monarchy and under the

¹⁰ Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VII, p. 43

strictest commanders the course of an army was marked by desolation. There were great destruction of growing crops when the army passed through a fairly cultivated country. Compensation under the name of *paemali* "foot treading," was certainly allowed, according to the rules, in the shape of a remission of revenue on the land injured, but this must have been a very incomplete indemnification for the loss of the crop."¹¹ It was "in the shape of a remission of revenue on the land injured" that the Peshwas' Government paid the *paemali* compensation, and there is reason to believe that in their case too the remission bore but a poor proportion to the loss sustained. It is, therefore, clear that in this instance at least the Marathas meekly followed the Mughal example which so far as the compensation itself was concerned was a laudable one. But the compensation naturally reminds one of the cause of the loss. It was as Irvine informs us the "great destruction of growing crops" by the Mughal forces, which could not be prevented by the strictest commander even in the best days of the monarchy.¹² So the Marathas were not

¹¹ Irvine, *Army of the Indian Moghuls*, pp. 192-193.

¹² Manucci writes about the oppression of the Mughal army: "Besides all these inflictions they have other losses, for when the soldiery passes through they plunder every thing they can lay hands on, cattle, food-supplies, grass straw; they destroy houses to get fire wood and on the villagers' heads they load their baggage, and by dint of blows force them to carry it". Manucci, ed. Irvine, Vol. II, p. 452.

the only offenders. Desolation was caused and growing crops had been destroyed by the Mughal forces too even while passing through the imperial territories in peaceful times, but the Maratha horseman has earned his unenviable notoriety as a plunderer and robber, because perhaps he was more thorough, more quick, more cunning and not because he was more ruthless, or less amenable to discipline than his Mughal brother.

CHAPTER II

REVENUE POLICY (*concluded*)

1. *Classification of Lands :*

The Muhammadan theories of revenue had been enunciated by the Arab theologians long before the conquest of India, and the Hindu principles had been laid down by old law-givers like Manu centuries before the birth of the Prophet of Mecca. The growth of these two sets of Revenue theories without and within India had therefore been altogether independent of each other. Yet they sometimes happened to be so similar that their interaction on each other had the same effect as the union of two similar Mendalian gametes. This happened with regard to the principles governing the classification of land in particular. We have already seen how Kautilya and the author of the *Shukranitisara* recognised the distinction between dry and irrigated land and the method of irrigation as a determining factor in assessment. The Marathas variously classified their land according to fertility, the nature of the crops, and the method of irrigation. This principle of classification was recognised by Musulman theologians also.

"Al-Mawardi discusses as follows the factors which determine the tax-bearing capacity of land. The person who assesses the *kharaj* on a piece of land should consider the capacity of land, which varies according to three factors, each factor affecting the amount of *kharaj* more or less. One of the factors pertaining to the land itself is the quality of the land by virtue of which the crop grown on it is rich, or the defect which causes the produce to be small. The second factor relates to the kind of crop, since grains and fruits vary in price, some fetching a higher price than the others, and the *kharaj* must therefore be assessed accordingly. The third factor pertains to the method of irrigation, for the crop that has been irrigated with water carried on the back of beasts or raised by a water-wheel, cannot stand the same rate of *kharaj* which could be charged on land watered by running water or rain."¹

The Muhammadan rulers in India did not always strictly follow the financial theories of Muhammadan theologians. Thus in Akbar's classification of land we find that more attention was paid to the state of cultivation than to the factors enumerated by Al-Mawardi² although the *polaj* and *porauti* lands were divided into three classes,—good, middling and bad.

¹ Agnides, p. 381

² Jarrett, *Annals Akbari*, Vol. II, p. 63.

But Akbar permitted special rates for some special crops as Abul Fazl informs us ; “ The revenue from indigo, poppy, pan, turmeric, pignut (*Trapa biopinosa*), hemp, kachalu (*Arum colocasia*), pumpkin, pinna (*Lawsonia mermis*), cucumbers, badrang (a species of cucumber), the egg plant (*Solanum melongena*), radishes, carrots, karela (*Momordica charantia*), kakura, tendas and muskmelons, not counted as produce, was ordered to be paid in ready money at the rates hereafter mentioned.”³ Murshid Quli Khan, during his Dewanship of the Deccan, not only “ distinguished arable land from rocky soils and water-courses,” but also recognised “the method of irrigation as a determining factor in assessment.” “ Where the crop depended on rainfall, the State took one half of it. Where agriculture depended on well irrigation the share of the State was one-third in the case of grain, and from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ in the case of grape, sugarcane, anise, plantain, pea-wort, and other special and high priced crops requiring laborious watering and length of culture. Where the field was irrigated from canals (pat) the proportion of the revenue to the crop varied, being sometimes higher and sometimes lower than in lands irrigated from wells.”⁴

³ Jarrett, *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. II, p. 65.

⁴ Jadunath Sarkar, *Aurangzib*, Vol, I, pp. 192-193.

In Murshid Quli's system we come across almost all the characteristics of the Maratha practice. The arable land is distinguished from rocky soils and the different methods of irrigation are taken into consideration. The Muhammadan system, however, did not in these respects make any new contribution to the evolution of the Maratha system. But a special rate for "special and high priced crops requiring laborious watering and length of culture" was the new feature introduced by the Muhammadans. In fact the Marathas went a step further, they did more for the cultivation of palms, jack trees, and Undani trees than what Murshid did for grapes, sugarcane, anise, plantain and pea-wort, and they continued the Musulman practice with regard to sugar-cane plantations.

2. *Principle of Assessment :*

Let us turn to the principles of assessment, and in this connection our attention is naturally attracted by the istawa system which prevailed under the early Hindu rulers. This system was not revived by the Marathas, as it was a living practice, a principle familiar both to the rulers and the ruled, when Shivaji founded an independent kingdom. We must therefore look to the Muhammadan historians, and not to the old Sanskrit works on law and polity, for the

(land that has lain fallow for three or four years) and banjar (land uncultivated for five years and more) lands alone the Marathas applied this principle in the assessment of all classes of lands, good, bad or middling, whether under cultivation or fallow. It should also be noted that the husbandman, under the Peshwa's Government, did pay in money or kind whatever was convenient to him.

3 *Payment by Instalment*

Payment by instalment was also allowed by Muhammadan rulers. In a farman addressed to his officers Akbar advises them thus, "Let them collect rent from the subjects in an easy manner, in order that all lands may be cultivated and blessed with population * * *. In collecting rent from the cultivators, do so piecemeal, and deviate in no degree from the agreement which has been made."⁷ The Muhammadan theologians also advocated collection of the Jizyah by instalments. "Abu Yusuf maintains that it should be collected by instalments every two months and Muhammad Ibn al Hasan, every month, in order that the tax may become more onerous for the tax-payers and more beneficial to the Moslems."⁸ Akbar's intention on the

⁷ Bird, *Statistical History of Gujarat* p. 394.

⁸ Aghaides, p. 406.

contrary was to make the payment more easy. We do not know for certain whether he followed the guidance of Abu Yusuf or Muhammad Ibn al-Hasan in recommending collection by instalment, but it is certain that he acted on far different principles.

4. The Agency of Collection :

The agency of collection was practically the same under the Muhammadans and the Marathas. The village communities flourished undisturbed and the village headmen were responsible for revenue collection and the village accountant kept the accounts. The account books were sent to the government officials almost in the same manner under both the Governments. "The *Patwari*," says Abul Fazl, "of each village was to apportion (the village) name by name, among the various subordinate agents, and the collectors were to send the cash under the seal of the *Patwari* to the treasurer." ⁹ The *Muquaddams* were considered so indispensable that Murshid Quli Khan, during his Dewanship in the Deccan, found it necessary to appoint new village headmen where the old family had either died out or migrated to some other place.

5 *Remission of Rent:*

Like the *paymalli* compensation remission of rent in times of famine were also made by Mughal Emperors. They thus set a strong precedent for the Marathas to follow, even though the principle was not new. One case of such remission of rent will suffice here. In 1629 Gujrat and the Deccan were visited by a terrible famine, and Abdul Hamid Lahori tells us that, "Under the directions of the wise and generous Emperor, taxes amounting to nearly seventy lacs of rupees were remitted by the revenue officers—a sum amounting to nearly eighty *krors* of *dams*, and amounting to one eleventh part of the whole revenue. When such remissions were made from the exchequer it may be conceived how great were the reductions made by the nobles who held *jagirs* and *mansabs*." ¹⁰ Akbar was contented, when a similar calamity overtook Hindusthan, with the distribution of alms as Shaikh Nurul Hakk informs us, "During the year 1004 H. there was a scarcity of rain throughout the whole of Hindustan, and a fearful famine raged continuously for three or four years. The king ordered that alms should be distributed in all the cities, and Nawab Shaikh Farid Bokhari, being ordered to superintend and control their distribution, did

¹⁰ Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VII, p. 25.

all in his power to relieve the general distress of the people. Public tables were spread, and the army was increased in order to afford maintenance to the poor people." ¹¹

Another commendable example that the Mughal Emperors set before the Marathas was that of granting rent-free land to deserving physicians for rendering their professional service free of charge to the suffering humanity. Muhammadans and Hindus believed alike in astrology and long association and spirit of inborn tolerance had generated in the Hindus that reverence for the mosques and the saints of their Musulman neighbours which devotees of one faith seldom entertain for another. The Sultans of Bijapur and Ahmadnagar therefore granted rent-free lands in *inam* to successful and learned Hindu astrologers while rent-free lands were granted by Shivaji and his successors for the maintenance of mosques and shrines of Muhammadan saints. The Maratha rulers also granted such *inam* to physicians of all faith and nationality for free distribution of medicine. Here, however, they had the example of the Muhammadan rulers before their eyes. In the year 989 of the Hijira a farman was granted to a Parsi physician which runs as follows—"Order,

Let the revenue collectors and officials and

¹¹ Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VI, p. 193.

Desais and *Qanungos* of the township of Navasari be informed that whereas the Parsi Mahr Tabib (physician) is a deserving person and does not possess any other means of subsistence, and whereas he has offered himself as a sacrifice, for the blessed life of His Exalted Majesty (May God perpetuate his dominion), the extent of four *Auls* of cultivated land and culturable waste, one *Aul* of cultivated and three *Auls* of culturable (waste), within the environs of the aforesaid township, has been settled upon him as his *wazifah*. As soon as they receive intimation of this Parwanah, they should hand over to him the said land after fixing its boundaries and setting it apart so that having tilled it according to his ability, he may spend the proceeds thereof in (providing) the means of subsistence and devote himself with a tranquil mind to praying for the permanence of His Majesty's powerful Kingdom. Let them know their duty and regard obedience in this matter as a positive obligation and do nothing contrary to the same. Written on the 21st of the sacred month of Muharram 989¹²

It is certain that the Parsi Tabib did not get the *nam* in question for merely "Praying for the permanence of His Majesty's powerful Kingdom," but for his professional services to the

¹² Hodivala Studies in Parsi History pp. 172-173

suffering subjects of His Majesty. Any doubt on this point is removed by another document quoted by Professor Hodivala in his *Studies in Parsi History*. "The children of Qiam Tabib beg and request the evidence of all those, who have any knowledge of the matter, to state whether the person aforesaid cures the ailments of the needy poor and distressed of the township of Navasari and whether his means of subsistence depend on fifty Bighas extent of land with trees thereon, in the said township. If any one is cognizant of the fact of the aforesaid Tabib having cured the diseases of the needy and the indigent, let him affix, for God's sake, his testimony below, (for which) he will receive his reward from the Lord and deserve thanks from men." ¹³ The request was answered by several Muhammadan gentlemen who attested to the truth of the statement and attached their seal and signature to the paper quoted above. It should be noted that the children of Qiam Tabib were the descendants of Mahr Tabib of the first document and it is clear that they enjoyed the inam in lieu of the service their ancestor and father rendered to the needy and the indigent of their native town. The Peshwas did not open hospitals and charitable dispensaries, they considered their duties performed when they

¹³ Hodivala, *Studies in Parsi History*, pp. 186-187.

granted some rent-free land in *inam* to some physician, whether he was a Hindu or a Muhammadan or even a Portuguese did not matter much who had the public spirit and generosity of treating the poor and the indigent sick free of charge

6 *Kauls*

Kauls have been referred to in the farmans addressed to Muhammad Hashim and Rasikdas, and we have seen in Book II how common this practice was in the Peshwa days. There is reason to believe that the Marathas were indebted to the Mughals for this excellent practice although the theory underlying it was older than the Muhammadan conquest. While engaged in a war against the Portuguese the Mughal officers often tried to induce the frightened peasants to come back to their villages and carry on the cultivation of their deserted fields by granting them *kauls*. Manucci, who had first hand knowledge of the Deccan affairs, writes as follows "As soon as the governor approached the Portuguese villages, the frightened peasants took to flight. Upon noticing this the governor sent for the village headmen and treating them courteously reassured them, and told them that they ought to remain in their villages and go on cultivating their fields

as usual. For, so he assured them, no one would interfere with them. He sent them away contented, giving presents to each according to his merits." ¹⁴

7. *Taxes and Cesses :*

If the Mughals had been instrumental in the survival of many good Hindu practices, they were no less responsible for many of the vexatious cesses and dues. This was but natural, human nature being what it is. The Muhammadan rulers, on their assumption of the Government of India, found that many taxes and cesses were levied by its former rulers and they were in no hurry to abolish them. Sometimes the conscience of such orthodox Musulman Emperors as Firuz Shah Tughlak, and Aurangzib was pricked because some of these taxes did not quite conform to the injunctions of the Quran and they abolished them. Benevolent despots like Akbar and Jahangir abolished many extra cesses and abwabs because they were irksome to the trader and cultivator. But these prohibitions had little effect in the distant provinces where the local officers and jagirdars paid but scant respect to the Emperor's wishes. Only in the big cities and the metropolis could these prohibitions be enforced. but even there it

¹⁴ Manucci, ed. Irvine, Vol. II, p. 229.

had only a temporary effect. After a few years the vexatious cesses and abwabs were all revived, and the Marathas continued to levy these dues when they became the masters of the land.

1. Lagnapatti or marriage cess was certainly one of these old dues levied by Hindu rulers of Vijayanagar and abolished by them in the sixteenth century. We find Lagnapatti and Patdam frequently mentioned in Marathi documents and the cess survived till the British conquest. The Marathas did not rise to power immediately after the abolition of the marriage cess by the Vijayanagar rulers in the 16th century but in the meantime the great Akbar continued to levy it in his empire. Abul Fazl informs us: His Majesty also takes a tax from both parties to enable them to shew their gratitude. The payment of this tax is looked upon as auspicious. *Mancabdars* commanding from five to one thousand pay 10 Muhars, *Mancabdars* commanding from one thousand to five hundred 4 Muhars, *Mancabdars* to commanders of forty 1 Muhur, do to commanders of ten 4 R. The latter fee is also paid by rich people. The middle classes pay 1 R and common people one *dam*. In demanding this tax, the officers have to pay regard to the circumstances of the father of the bride.¹⁵ During the Peshwa regime the

marriage cess was levied at the rate of 8 annas in case of a marriage and 1 Re. when it was a re-marriage.

2. Among the taxes remitted by Akbar is mentioned *Sardarakhti* ¹⁶ a tax on each tree. Jahangir also says, "Thanks to the Almighty God, that no revenue on fruit trees has been taken during my reign; and I gave orders that if any one were to plant a garden in cultivated land he was not to pay any revenue." ¹⁷ So it is evident that *sardarakhti* was levied before Jahangir and Akbar, but though abolished by them it was revived later on. In Maratha days the tax was known as *jhadjhadora*.

3. *Ashva Zakati* is a cess we have mentioned in a previous Book. It is interesting to note that a similar tax is mentioned by Abul Fazl. "From foresight and on account of the large profits of the horse-dealers, His Majesty enforced a tax of three Rupees for every Iraqui *Mujammas* and Arab, imported from Kabul and Persia; two and a half Rupees for every Turkish and Arabian horse imported from *Quandahar*, and two for Kabul horses and Indian Arab breed." ¹⁸ Manucci also mentions a similar tax. ¹⁹ "Most of the horses used by the Mogul come from the

¹⁶ Jarrett, *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. II, p. 66. Also Thomas, *Revenue Resources of the Moghul Empire*, p. 17.

¹⁷ Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VI, p. 365.

¹⁸ Blochmann, *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. I, p. 215.

¹⁹ Manucci, ed. Irvine, Vol. II, p. 371.

regions of Balkh, Bukhara and Kabul Thence come every year more than one hundred thousand, and on them the King makes a great profit by the duty he imposes At the crossing of the Indus alone a payment twenty-five per cent on their value is made '

4 There cannot be any doubt that *gau shumari* or a tax on each head of oxen²⁰ abolished by Akbar was the Mughal prototype of the Maratha Shingshingoti, but it is needless to multiply instances "Rahdari which was collected on every highway frontier and ferry, and brought in a large sum to the revenue," and Pandari (or Pandharpatti) a ground or house cess, which was paid throughout the Imperial dominions by every tradesman and dealer, from the butcher, the potter and the green-grocer to the draper, jeweller and banker" had both been prohibited by Emperor Aurangzib²¹ This prohibition however was not quite effective Khafi Khan tells us, Although his gracious and beneficent Majesty remitted these taxes, and issued strict orders prohibiting their collection the avaricious propensities of men prevailed, so that with the exception of pandari, which, being mostly obtained from the capital and the chief cities, felt the force of the abolition, the royal prohibition had no effect and faujdars and

²⁰ Jarrett *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol II p 66

²¹ Elliot & Dowson Vol VII p 247

jagirdars in remote places did not withhold their hands from these exactions." And again, "The rahdari in particular is condemned by righteous and just men as a most vexatious impost, and oppressive to travellers but a large sum is raised by it. In most parts of the Imperial territories the faujdars and jagirdars by force and tyranny, now exact more than ever from the traders and poor necessitous travellers."²² So it is no wonder that the Marathas should continue to exact rahdari and taxes analogous to pandari as the Mughals did before them. They had accepted the bad as well as the good points of the administrative system which they found in operation when they wrested the land from their Islamic masters.

It is needless to go into details about every tax and cess. It will suffice here if some of the taxes and cesses levied by Muhammadans and afterwards continued by the Marathas are mentioned.

1. Beth Begari^{22a}
2. Belekati
3. Telpati
4. Tup
5. Hejib

²² *Ibid*, p. 248.

^{22a} Forced labour existed under the Portuguese in a very rigorous form. Even the Brahmans were not exempted from it. See da Cunha, *Origin of Bombay*, pp. 116-118.

6. Mohtarfa
8. Ghurpatti
- 9 Bat Chapai
- 10 Kotowali
- 14 Wancharai²³

Khafi Khan has mentioned, among other taxes, cesses and abwabs, prohibited by Aurangzib, "the fourth part of debts recovered by the help of Magistrates from creditors' We have seen in Book II, how creditors had to pay a fee amounting to twenty-five per cent of the money recovered from debtors with state help under the

²³ For these see Thomas Revenue Sources of the Moghul Empire, pp 5, 16 17 18 & 19 Manucci, ed Irvine, Vol II, pp 386 & 387, Elliot & Dowson Vol VII pp 247 & 248 Bird, Gujarat, pp 113 & 114 Jarret Ain Vol II pp 66 & 67 The Portuguese generally took care to preserve the old revenue customs and usages as far as possible A Commission with Antonio Francisco Benjamin Pinto as President and Xavier da Cunha, V A Ceaser de Mello, Francisco Joao Jacob Continho as members was appointed (2nd May 1867) to report on the practices usages and customs regarding payment of rents, etc in the villages of Daman They submitted their report on the 24th August 1871 The report has been published in *Noticias E Documentos Para A Historia de Damão Antiga Provincia Do Norte* by Antonio Francisco Moniz Junior (1900 Bastora) It recounts all the rights, taxes cesses and privileges enjoyed by the State and the landlords, and we find (p 168) that *jerayet* land was recognised for revenue purposes as in Maharashtra (terra alta Chamado Jerat) that cocoanut trees were taxed (p 169) (pagão por cem cajuris dez rupias) and that rent varied according to the nature of the crop cultivated Mention is made of a due called Dan (p 172), most probably analogous to Dan of our list Poruma Viga de terra de Undo do produçao de Dangué, ou cara com jerat pago se vinte e dois paras e sem jerat Vinte a titulo de Dan

Peshwa regime. Customs, specially when favourable to the powerful, die hard indeed !

Customs and transit duties were levied in India by her Hindu rulers from very early times. The Muhammadan kings who succeeded them continued the old duties as usual and sometimes added to their incidence. In the early years of the Mughal rule, when Babar laid the foundation of his power at Delhi, "there was a duty levied on the frontier on goods" and "there were transit duties on merchandise transported from one part of the country to another."²⁴ Jahangir prohibited transit duties²⁵ but there cannot be any doubt that they continued to be levied. "Mundy, Thevenot, and Tavernier, who took an interest in such topics, show us a regular system of transit dues in force throughout large portions of the country, and Father Sebastian Manrique tells how the passport granted to him as an ecclesiastic to travel from Lahore to the mouth of the Indus was used by a merchant of his party to evade many demands during the journey."²⁶ Thevenot counted, on the road from Aurangabad to Golkonda, sixteen taxing posts in twenty-three leagues.²⁷ Customs, tolls and transit duties were collected throughout the territories of the Sultan

²⁴ Erskine, *A History of India under the First two Sovereigns of the House of Taimur*, Vol. I, p. 530.

²⁵ Elliot & Dowson, Vol. VII, pp. 290 & 291.

²⁶ Moreland, *India at the Death of Akbar*, p. 49.

²⁷ *Ibid*, p. 50.

of Golkonda even at the time of the Mughal conquest.²⁵ The Marathas did not cease to impose these time-honoured duties, but in their time the hardship of the merchants and tradesmen were considerably ameliorated as a class of men known as Hundikaris undertook to transport all commodities from one place to another for a single payment

Customs Duties were during the Peshwa regime farmed out to tax-contractors for a specified sum. Here also the Marathas seem to have followed in the footsteps of the Mughals. Manucci not only mentions tax-contractors, but gives a graphic account of their shameless conduct.²⁶

Thus we find that many of the cesses and taxes had been inherited by the Marathas from their ancient Hindu ancestors through the Muhammadans, while for others they were indebted to the Muhammadans alone. The term Zakat they must have borrowed from their Islamic rulers; but their Zakat could hardly be identified with the Poor tax which every follower of the Prophet of Mecca deemed it his bounden duty to pay for the benefit of the poorer and more indigent members of their community. The payment of Zakat formed part of the Islamic faith, technically therefore it could

²⁵ Irvine, Manucci, Vol II, pp 387 & 388

²⁶ Manucci, ed Irvine, Vol. II, p 175

not be levied for the benefit of the State nor was an unbeliever entitled to pay it.³⁰ But it has to be remembered that Zakat was collected from tradesmen too for complete *nisabs* of articles of trade they possessed, by the ashirs. "The ashirs were collectors stationed by the *imam* on the public road in order to collect the Zakat of Moslem traders, as well as the tolls imposed on the *dhimmi* and *harbi* traders who pass him." It is not difficult to guess how the Zakat which originally formed an obligation on the part of all Muhammadan householders who possessed the taxable amount of property, became a source of income of the Non-Muslim Maratha rulers. The Muhammadans of course brought their theories of finance with them and tried to enforce them as far as possible, and as the payment of Zakat was an obligation on the part of all true believers, they continued to pay them. Gradually the more unscrupulous of the Muslim rulers began to appropriate the Zakat collected by public officers for their own use instead of properly disbursing it according to the injunctions of the Quran. The Hindus also became familiar with its collection by officers on the roadside and whether they were familiar or not with its origin, they began to regard it as a source of revenue like other taxes and cesses. When

³⁰ For Zakat see Aghnides, Muhammadan Theories of Finance.

therefore the Marathas replaced the Muhammadans the term lost its original Quranic sense and acquired a far wider meaning. It was collected from all traders irrespective of their faith, caste and creed, and like some other taxes were farmed out to a contractor. But sometimes as we have seen a Kamavisdar of Zakat was appointed to check the oppression and corrupt practices of the tax-contractors.

8 Standardisation of Price

Before concluding this chapter on the revenue principles we may take a passing notice of a Hindu practice transmitted to the Marathas by the Muslims. All Maratha rulers from Shivaji to Bajirao II actively interfered in the manufacturing industries of their land and tried to control the prices of the necessities of life. This practice is as old as the Artha Shastra of Kautilya. But it must be conceded that the Muslim rulers of India did much to keep it alive. Allauddin Khilji tried to keep down his military expenses by keeping down the price of all necessities of life. He did not try to achieve his purpose by a skilful balancing of demand and supply. These principles were perhaps undreamt of in his time in Europe and Asia. But like a true autocrat he arbitrarily fixed the price of all necessary articles of food. Anybody who was detected in demanding a

higher rate was severely punished.³¹ But Alla-uddin was not the only prince to aim at a standardisation of prices. In Mughal days it was one of the duties of the Kotwal to supervise the purchase and sale of goods in the market place. Akbar fixed the price of building materials after a careful enquiry to the satisfaction of all as Abul Fazl informs us.³² And the principle of state-controlled price survived till the English introduced the idea of free trade and economic non-interference in India.

³¹ Briggs' *Ferishta*, Vol. I, pp. 355-360.

³² Blochmann, *Ain-i-Akbar*, Vol. I, pp. 221-223.

From papers mentioned in *Catalogo does Manuscriptos da Bibliotheca publica Eborensis*, it appears that the Portuguese Government also deemed it their duty to regulate the price of rice, etc. See p. 360.

CHAPTER III.

MILITARY ORGANISATION.

1. *Mansab and Saranjam :*

For their military organisation the Marathas were more directly indebted to the Muham-madans than for their Revenue system. The Revenue principles were mostly Hindu in origin, but the Maratha military regulations were directly inspired by the practice in the Muham-madan armies. After the foundation of the Bahmani kingdom, the Marathas enlisted in large numbers in the Pathan army and during the Nizam and Adil Shahi regime they rose to very great prominence. High ranks and rich jagirs were willingly conferred on competent Maratha generals by their Muslim masters, and it is no wonder that they completely assimilated the military tactics of the Muslim rulers of South India. Having once formed a component part of the Ahmadnagar and Bijapur forces, Shivaji's early followers were naturally familiar with the Muhammadan military organisation. In fact Shivaji often enlisted deserters from his enemy's army. But it should be remembered that the genius of Shivaji warned him against a slavish

rewards, or ordinary gifts, a man might be awarded" among other distinctions (1) "the right to carry a flag or simple standard and (2) the right to use kettle drums and beat the naubat"¹⁴ The Chaughadas granted by Maratha rulers were nothing but kettle drums¹⁵ and the principal Maratha Sardars had their naubats as well

Shivaji had conferred upon two of his generals, Kadtaji Gujar and Hansaji Mohite, the titles of Pratap Rao and Hambir Rao respectively. Rajaram also honoured his officers with high sounding titles, but a mere glance at the list of the titles he conferred will at once convince one that the Chhatrapati was simply following the practice of the Badshah of Delhi. Hukmatpanha, Shamsheer Bahadur, Shahjang, Rustamrao, Amir-ul Umara, Sharfanmulk, Madarūlmaham, Saphejang Bahadur, Shahajat-mulk and Fattejang Bahadur¹⁶ were undoubtedly of Muslim origin and not Hindu titles.

6 Pension

Irvine does not say whether the Mughals paid any pension to the minor children and widows of soldiers killed in action as the Marathas did, although Balban had granted to his old veterans a full-pay pension. The

¹⁴ Irvine *Army of the Indian Moghuls* p. 30

¹⁵ For an instance of Chaughada see *Peshwanchi Bakhar* p. 74

¹⁶ Chitnis's *Sambhaji and Rajaram* ed. Sane p. 52


principle of helping the children and wives of such men was not unknown to the Muhammadan monarchs. "A rule was established by the Sultan (Mahmud Bigarah) that if an *amir* or any soldier was killed in battle or died a natural death, his *jagir* was confirmed to his son; if there was no son, half of the *jagir* was given to the daughter; and if there was no daughter, a suitable provision was settled upon the dependents, so that there might be no ground of complain."¹⁷ The Emperor Humayun also provided for the widows and orphans of his soldiers, as his step-sister Princess Gulbadan informs us, "To widows and orphans, and kinsfolk of men who had been wounded and killed at Chausa and Kanauj or Bhakkar, or who were in the royal service during those intermissions, he gave pensions, and rations, and water, and land, and servants. In days of His Majesty's good fortune, great tranquillity and happiness befell soldiers and peasants. They lived without care, and put up many an ardent prayer for his long life."¹⁸

7. *Branding of Horses:*

Sabhasad tells us that Shivaji captured about four thousand horses at Surat and "a cavalry

¹⁷ Bayley, Gujarat, p. 167.

¹⁸ Beveridge, A. S. . The Humayun Nama of Gulbadan Begam, pp. 178-79.

force was organised with them. As the distinctive mark of this force, a quadrangular sign was branded on the right buttock of the horses"¹⁹ For this practice of branding horses the Marathas were certainly indebted to the Muslims. Branding was first introduced by Allauddin Khilji, but the practice was discontinued by his immediate successors. It was however revived by Sher Shah and finally introduced into the Mughal army by Akbar, to continue till the downfall of his dynasty.²⁰ Abul Fazl has given detailed information about the branding of horses in Akbar's time. Manucci, who was quite familiar with the military regulations of the great Mughal, is not silent about it. "All the horsemen," writes he, "who are *mansabdars* under the king must have impressed on the right flank of their horses a mark made like this  which is the royal brand. From the day that they get this mark made their pay begins. The Generals also cause a brand to be placed on the horses of their troopers, but it is made on the left flank. Their brand is usually the first letter of their name, and their men's pay begins also on the day that the brand is imprinted"²¹ It seems that Shivaji first branded his horses after the second sack of Surat. By that time he

¹⁹ Sen Siva Chhatrapati p 88

²⁰ Irvine Army of the Indian Moghuls p 46

²¹ Manucci ed Irvine, Vol II, pp 376 377

must have become well acquainted with the military regulations of his Mughal enemies. But we do not know for certain whether this practice of branding horses survived Shivaji in the Maratha army.

8. *The Shiledars :*

From the horses let us turn to their owners, the Shiledars. The Shiledar had to purchase his own horse and was not compensated for its loss, whether in war or otherwise, by the State. From a paper published in the *Itihas Sangraha*, it appears that this rule was suspended by Chimnaji Appa during his campaign against Bassein and the horseman who lost his horse in the siege operations got its price. But this was an exceptional case, the general practice was the same as that prevailing in the Mughal army. The Shiledar's horse was his own property and he seldom risked its loss. Irvine writes of the Mughal army, "The constitution of the army was radically unsound. Each man was, there can be no doubt, individually brave, even to recklessness. Why then do we find them so ready to retreat from a battle-field, so anxious to make off after the slightest reverse? Simply because they had so much to lose and so very little to gain. A trooper rode his own horse, and if it was killed he was ruined irretrievably." Irvine further

remarks, "Moor noticed among the Mahratta cavalry that the same cause produced the same effect. A reluctance to charge will be frequently observed, which does not proceed from any deficiency in personal courage, but from this cause a great part of the horses in the Mahratta service are, we have understood, the property of the riders, who receive a certain monthly pay, according to the goodness of the horse, for their own and their beast's services. If a man has his horse killed or wounded no equivalent is made him by the Sirkar, but he loses his animal and his allowance, he will, therefore, of course, be as careful as possible to preserve both."²² Moor wrote in the last decade of the 18th century, and we do not know whether his remarks hold good of Shivaji's army. It is however certain that many of his military regulations were suffered to disappear during the Peshwa period, and the Peshwas not only tried to imitate the pomp and splendour of the Mughal court, but also organised their army on the Mughal model. The organisation of the Peshwa army therefore was equally unsound.

9 *Pendharis*

Before we take leave of the Maratha army let us take a passing notice of the Pendharis

* Irvine *Army of the Indian Moghuls* pp 298 299

who accompanied it. Authorised thieves were known in ancient India, and they accompanied the Mughal forces also, to harass the enemy's country. Manucci says, "Along with the armies there march privileged and recognised thieves called Bederia (Bidari); these are the first to invade the enemy's territory, where they plunder every thing they find. The handsomest items are reserved for the general; the rest they sell on their own account. Prince Shah Alam, when he was within the territories of Shivaji, near Goa, had in his army seven thousand such, whose orders were to ravage the lands of Bardes because of my non-return, as I have stated in my Second Part."²³ Irvine remarks in a note that these Bidaris are sometimes confounded with the Pendharis. Such confusion or identification is not however absolutely unwarranted.²⁴ The Pendharis and the authorised thieves mentioned by Manucci shared several common characteristics. They accompanied a regular army to ravage and plunder the enemy's territories. The Pendharis paid a tax which amounted to 25 per cent. of their booty, while the Bidari reserved the choicest items for the general. It may be noted

²³ Manucci, ed. Irvine, Vol. II, p. 459.

²⁴ It is worth noticing that Sabhasad thinks that Dilel Khan was accompanied by a body of Pendharis when he laid siege to Kondana. It is therefore clear that these Bidaris were known to their Maratha contemporaries as Pendharis. See Sen, Extracts and Documents, Vol. I, p. 52.

that the authorised thieves and robbers who accompanied the Maratha army were variously called the Pendharis and Lamans and in extreme south Bedars. It may not therefore be altogether unreasonable, though the objections of so great an authority as Irvine cannot be lightly rejected, to suppose that the Pendharis of the Peshwa army had their prototypes in the Bidari who followed the Mughal forces. It should be noted that it is not known whether Shivaji had, like the Peshwas, an auxiliary force of authorised robbers. Naturally the Peshwa army organised on the Mughal model shows more points in common with the Mughal army than does the earlier Maratha army that earned eternal fame under Shivaji's leadership.

CHAPTER IV.

THE POLICE.

1. *The Kotwal* :

The Maratha Government like the Mughals had nothing to do with the rural police. The village headman kept rural peace as best as he could with the help of his Mahar watchmen. But the urban police was maintained by the state, and herein also we find another instance of the Marathas adopting the Muslim practice. The head of the city police was the *Kotwal*, and the origin of his office, as the name indicates was certainly Muhammadan. His principal duties as enumerated in a document dated 1767-68 were (for full particulars see Book II) (1) to dispose of important disputes within his jurisdiction, (2) to fix the prices of goods, (3) to supply labourers for Government work and to supervise sales and purchases of land, (4) to take a census and keep a record of all persons coming to and leaving the city. And over and above these he had to maintain peace and order in the city.

According to Abul Fazl also, "He (the *Kotwal*) should keep a register of houses, and

frequented roads, and engage the citizens in a pledge of reciprocal assistance and bind them to a common participation of weal and woe" "Of every guild of artificers, he should name one as *guild master* and another as *broker*, by whose intelligence the business of purchase and sale should be conducted " He shall discover thieves and goods they have stolen or be responsible for the loss " He should use his discretion in the reduction of prices and not allow purchases to be made outside the city" And "he shall examine the weights" ¹ According to a Farman addressed by Akbar to all his officers, the *Kotwal* was required to supervise the purchase and sale of goods " The *Kotwal* should according to Dastur ul Aml, "summoning the watchmen and sweepers, take bonds from them that they should daily report to him the occurrences of every *mahalla* (ward of the city) without suppression or exaggeration" "Do justice," the *Kotwal* is advised, "that people may liken you to a quazi in the power of arriving at the truth of a case On the public streets of the cities post careful men to act as watchmen from sunset to 9 P M and 9 P M to dawn, to scrutinise the wayfarers and arrest those whom they consider to be thieves and evil doers, and bring them to you" ² Manucci says that "it was the

¹ Jarrett *Ami Akbari* Vol II pl 41, 42 ² B r l Gujrat p 402

³ Sarkar *Mughal Administration* First Edition pp 94 95

kotwal's business to stop the distillation of arrack (spirits) the *cau-de-vie* used in the Indies. * * He obtains information about all that goes on so as to be able to send in his report. * * He also has the duty of arresting thieves and criminals. * * It is also his business to collect the income from the town."†

A comparison of the above two lists, the Maratha and the Mughal, of the Kotwal's duties leaves but little doubt that the Maratha Kotwal had to perform almost the same duties as those entrusted to his Muslim brother in a Mughal town. We have noticed elsewhere that the Maratha Kotwal's duties were to a great extent similar to those of the Nagaraka, the Mauryan Town Prefect. But it is doubtful whether the Marathas went so far from their own times in search of their ideal for a Police officer when it was easily available in the neighbouring Mughal cities.

2. *Compensation for stolen property:*

We may also take note of a police rule of undoubted antiquity which was adopted by the Mughal rulers of India. Whenever anything was stolen it was the duty of the police officers

† Manucci, ed. Irvine, Vol. II, pp. 420-421. Mr. Ramsbotham tells me that Eau-de-vie is more generally used for brandy, arrack was a rough kind of rum.

of the place to recover the property or compensate the owner for his loss. This compensation was on rare occasions paid out of the state funds but more generally by the Policemen concerned. The *Am-i Akbari* lays down, "He (the kotwal) shall discover thieves and the goods they have stolen or be responsible for the loss." Manucci tells us that loss from robbery was compensated by the state during Shah Jahan's reign.⁵ The same writer, whose statement is based on actual observation, says of the Kotwal, "If any one is robbed within the bounds of his jurisdiction, he is forced to make good what has been taken."⁶ The Faujdars who supervised roads had similar responsibilities. Manucci informs us, "These *fauj-dars* have to supervise the roads, and should any merchant or traveller be robbed in day light, they are obliged to pay compensation. If robbed at night, it is the traveller's fault for not having halted earlier, and he loses all, without his complaints being heard."⁷ This practice survived in the Central Indian principalities till the middle of the 19th century. The Maratha policy towards such criminal tribes as the Kolis and the Bhils who infested their frontier was also an inheritance from the Muhammadan rulers they had replaced.⁸

⁵ Manucci ed Irvine Vol I, p 201

⁶ Manucci ed Irvine Vol II p 4

⁷ Manucci ed Irvine Vol II p 451

⁸ Bird Statistical Hist of Gujrat pp 409 ff

FORM No. 142.

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			33. Service books, character books and rolls.
			34. Stationery.
			35. Stores and Mathematical instruments.
			36. Through Traffic system.
			37. Wagon supply.
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II.—Mines—			1. Administrative changes.
(<i>cis-Indus and Kala-</i>			2. Arms, accoutrements and uniform.
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<i>and Mandi).</i>			4. Camp equipment and equipage.
			5. Carriage and freight of salt.
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<i>No.</i>	<i>Main heads.</i>	<i>Page.</i>	<i>Sub-heads.</i>
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			19. Occupation of land for Departmental purposes
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			28. Seizures.
			29. Service books, character books and rolls.
			30. Stationery.
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III.	Internal Branch.		1. Administrative changes.
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			20 Saltpetre refineries
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			22 Scales, weights and weighing machines.
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			25 Sitta, levy of excise fees, etc.
			26 Stationery
<hr/>			
IV —Establishment.			1 Appointments.
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3. Salt Acts and Rules.

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2. Budget estimates.

3. Carriage and freight of salt.

4. Contingencies.

5. Departmental Funds.

6. Expenditure on construction and repairs of buildings.

7. Expenditure on office furniture, camp equipment and equipage, stationery, forms, maps, service books, character books and rolls.

8. Expenditure on mine improvement and wagon tramway.

9. Expenditure on roads and railways.

10. Expenditure on water supply.

11. Levy and refund of duty and price of salt.

12. Levy and refund of Hakimi cess on Sultanpuri salt.

13. Periodical returns.

14. Price currents.

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Permanent File.		Pending File.		Subject.
No.	Year.	No.	Year.	

FORM No. 144.

Register of closed ephemeral files.

No	Purport.	Remarks

FORM No. 145.

NORTHERN INDIA SALT DEPARTMENT.

Pending File No. _____ *of 19*

SUBJECT.

(NOTES AND ORDERS.)

INDEX.

File No. _____ of 19 ____ .

From or to whom	No	Date	Brief abstract of contents	Page

Précis of letters received on the

19 .

From	Subject.	Remarks

FORM No 150.

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SUBJECT.

References

Previous Files		Later Files.	

FORM No 152.

cis-INDUS AND KOHAT MINES

Subject headings of the Permanent File Register.

Headings — With explanatory details

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 Officers and establishment. | All files relating to appointments, promotions, reductions, transfers, leave, retirement, resignations, deaths, misconduct, punishment, etc |
| 2 Office. | All files relating to furniture, tents and equipage, stationery, forms, maps, records and Government property. |
| 3 Mining, excavation and sales of salt | All files relating to the mining, excavation of salt and to sales, weighment and clearance |
| 4. Smuggling and preventive arrangements. | All files relating to the illegal removal and possession of salt, rewards, action of Courts, etc |
| 5. Statistics, periodical reports and diaries | All files relating to accounts, with reference to salaries, contingencies, travelling allowances and revenue, and to periodical reports and diaries |
| 6 Works | All files relating to new buildings and other works and to petty construction and repairs |
| 7. Medical | All files relating to the Medical establishment, hospital arrangements and medical aid. |
| 8. Miscellaneous | All files to which the foregoing heads are not applicable. |
-

FORM No. 153.

RAJPUTANA SALT SOURCES.

Subject headings of Permanent File Register.

Headings :—With explanatory details.

1. Officers and establishment. All files relating to appointments, promotions, reductions, transfers, leave, retirement, resignations, deaths, misconduct, punishment, etc.
 2. Office. All files relating to furniture, tents and equipage, stationery, forms, maps, records and Government property.
 3. Manufacture and sales of salt. All files relating to the manufacture and storage of salt; and to sales, free deliveries, weighments and clearances.
 4. Works. All files relating to new buildings and other works, and to petty construction and repairs.
 5. Statistics, periodical reports and diaries. All files relating to Departmental (as distinct from Treasury) accounts with reference to salaries, contingencies, travelling allowances, revenue, etc., and to periodical reports and diaries.
 6. Treasury. All files relating to Treasury matters, accounts, returns, remittances, etc.
 7. Judicial. All files relating to the illegal removal or possession of salt, rewards, the magisterial powers of the Assistant Commissioner and judicial returns and correspondence.
 8. Medical. All files relating to the Medical Establishment, hospital arrangements and medical aid.
 9. Smuggling and preventive arrangements. All files relating to the illegal removal and possession of salt, rewards, action of Courts, etc.
 10. Miscellaneous. All files to which the foregoing heads are not applicable.
-

FORM No. 154.

INTERNAL BRANCH.

Subject headings of Permanent File Register.

Headings:—With explanatory details.

1. Officers and establishment. All files relating to appointments, promotions, reductions, transfers, leave, retirement, resignations, deaths, misconduct, punishment, etc.
2. Office. All files relating to furniture, tents and equipage, stationery, forms, maps, records and Government property.
3. Licensed factories. All files relating to licensed factories of all kinds, and the excise or destruction of salt in saltpetre refineries.
4. Saline tracts. All files relating to the supervision of saline tracts.
5. Statistics, periodical reports and diaries. All files relating to accounts, with reference to salaries, contingencies, travelling allowances and revenue; and to periodical reports and diaries.
6. Seizures and rewards. All files relating to seizures and rewards in connection with both salt and opium, action of Courts, etc.
7. Miscellaneous. All files to which the foregoing heads are not applicable.

Précis of English correspondence of the _____ *Division for the month of* _____

Purport of letters issued.

Purport of letters received.

From or to whom.

Date.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 30 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following rules, which have been framed for the Departmental examination of Probationary Assistant Superintendents, and of Inspectors or other subordinates who have been selected for promotion to the appointment of Assistant Superintendent, are published for general information. As prescribed in the Rules sanctioned by the Government of India for admission to the superior executive grades of the Department, Probationary Assistant Superintendents and subordinates selected for promotion to the appointment of Assistant Superintendent, will be required to pass the Departmental examination before they are confirmed in the appointment of Assistant Superintendent. The marks which will be allotted to each subject are entered opposite the subject.

1 The examination will be held in the following subjects —

	Maximum number of marks obtainable
(1) Volume I of the Manual—	
(a) The Indian Salt Act 1882 the Indian Mines Act, 1901 and the rules made thereunder by the Governor General in Council, the subsidiary rules made by the Commissioner under the Indian Salt Act 1882, and the instructions with regard to the administration of that Act .	150
(b) The weightment and other rules of the Department	200
(2) Volumes II and III of the Manual—	
The rules regarding the Sambhar Salt Lake and notifications relating to the establishment of Courts at the Raipurana Salt Sources, and the Uniform Rules and Book Circulars . . .	100
(3) Arithmetic . . .	100
(4) Plane table surveying .	100
(5) Plans and estimates for the construction of buildings .	100
(6) Rutton's Handbook on Common Salt . . .	50
(7) Urdu . . .	100
TOTAL .	900

2 To pass successfully, at least one-half of the marks allotted to each subject, and three fourths of the total number of marks, must be obtained.

3 A good knowledge of Arithmetic will be required. In plane table surveying, an officer will be expected to survey and map with correctness and neatness a house, an enclosed space, a boundary or some other natural object. Plans and estimates for buildings must be prepared correctly and in proper form.

4 A good colloquial knowledge of Urdu will be required with ability to read the written character both *Nastalikh* and *Shikast*, to write Urdu from dictation, to translate correctly from English into Urdu and from Urdu into English simple narrative passages from any books or papers which may be selected for the purpose by the examiners, and to dictate in Urdu an order on any subject which may be specified by them.

5. The examination will be conducted at Agra by the Deputy Commissioner of the Department with the aid of the Assistant Commissioner of the Upper Division of the Internal Branch.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 31 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following rules, which have been framed to regulate the appointment and Departmental examination of Inspectors in the Department, are published for general information.

1. It is indispensable that Inspectors should have a knowledge of English, and proof of fair proficiency in that language will be required from candidates.

2. A register of qualified and approved candidates will be maintained in the Central Office, and appointments on probation will be made by the Commissioner from this list as vacancies occur from time to time.

3. A probationary Inspector will not be confirmed in his appointment until (a) his service has been approved for a period of not less than six months, and (b) he has passed in full the Departmental examination prescribed by these rules.

4. A probationary Inspector whose services are not approved, or who fails to pass the Departmental examination within six months from the date of his appointment as probationary Inspector, will be liable to removal from his appointment; or, in the case of a subordinate appointed on probation, to reversion to his substantive appointment.

5. The Departmental examination, which a probationary Inspector, whose service has been approved, will be required to pass, will be held in the following subjects:—

Maximum number
of marks
obtainable.

(1) Volume I of the Manual—

(a) The Indian Salt Act, 1882; the rules made under it by the Governor General in Council; the subsidiary rules made by the Commissioner and the instructions with regard to the administration of the Act	...	150
(b) The weighment and other rules of the Department	...	200

						Maximum number of marks obtainable.
(2) Volume III of the Manual—						
The Uniform Rules and Book Circulars	100
(3) Arithmetic	100
(4) Urdu and Hindi	50
TOTAL						600

To pass successfully, at least one-half of the marks allotted to each subject must be obtained.

6. A fair knowledge of Arithmetic will be required, and both the Urdu and Hindi characters must be read and written with facility.

7. The examination will be conducted by the Assistant Commissioner of the Division to which a probationary Inspector may be posted, with the assistance of a Superintendent, and the Assistant Commissioner shall forward the examination papers and his report upon them to the Commissioner for orders.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 32 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following Rules for the management of the Excluded Local Funds of the Department are published for information and guidance. The funds are (a) the Badge and Uniform Fund, and (b) the Parao Funds of the Kohat and *cis*-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Divisions.

2. Recoveries under Rules 6, 16, 20 and 21 of the Uniform Rules of the Department shall be credited to the Badge and Uniform Fund. A Badge fee of one rupee may, under the orders of the Commissioner, be recovered from each peon or petty officer on enlistment. Other items of receipt may also be credited to the fund under special orders of the Commissioner. A separate fund shall be maintained for the Kohat Mines Division, the account of which shall be kept by the Assistant Commissioner

of that Division, and the money shall be lodged in the Kohat treasury. One fund shall be maintained for the rest of the Department, the account of which shall be kept in the Central Office, and the money shall be deposited in the treasury at Agra. Assistant Commissioners of all Divisions, except Kohat, shall forward sums recovered under the Uniform Rules for credit to the fund to the Central Office at Agra.

3. Refunds of sums recovered may be made, in accordance with rule 21 of the uniform rules, under the orders of the Assistant Commissioner, Kohat. No expenditure other than the above shall be incurred from the Badge and Uniform Fund except with the previous sanction of the Commissioner. The cost of repairing badges and leather accoutrements in Kohat, and of repairing belts and badges in other Divisions, will be met from the Badge and Uniform Fund, or from the allotments for contingencies, as the Commissioner may from time to time direct.

4. The object of parao fees and the Parao Funds is to provide for the sanitation of the Depôts, and to permit of *sarais* being constructed and other arrangements being made for the benefit and convenience of the salt traders who visit the mines.

5. The parao fees which are at present levied at the depôts and credited to the Parao Fund of the Kohat Mines Division are—three pies for each camel, two pies for each bullock and one pie for each donkey. The payment of these fees is obligatory on all traders resorting to the mines. The receipts from the sale of blasting powder to miners in this Division are also credited to the Fund.

In the *cis*-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division, the receipts of the Parao Fund comprise—

(a) Parao fees to be realised at the Warcha Depôt at the rate of one and-a-half pies for each camel, one pie for each bullock and one-half of a pie for each pony, donkey or mule. These fees shall be levied from traders who may avail themselves of the convenience of the *parao* and *sarai* at Warcha and it shall be the duty of the Officer in charge of that Depôt to see that fees are collected from such men only.

(b) Ground rent at the rate of six pies for every hundred square feet of space utilised for buildings occupied by traders and others at the Warthganj Depôt at Khewrah. In the levy of this rental, less than fifty square feet shall be omitted from calculation, and fifty square feet and over shall be taken as one hundred square feet.

Such other sums may in addition be credited to the Funds as the Commissioner may authorise from time to time.

6. The *sarai* at Warcha in the *cis*-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division, and any *sarais* which may be constructed in the Kohat Mines Division, shall be maintained and repaired from the Parao Funds; and such establishment may be entertained and charged to the Funds in the two Divisions as may be sanctioned from time to time by the Commissioner, for sanitation or any other purpose connected with the benefit or convenience of the salt traders. The Assistant Commissioner of Kohat is authorised to debit the Fund of his Division with the cost of blasting powder which is purchased for issue on payment to miners. Proposals for expenditure in connection with any

other object must be submitted to the Commissioner for approval and sanction before any expenditure is actually incurred

7. Accurate and detailed accounts must be kept of the receipts and expenditure of the Badge and Parao Funds. All money received for credit to the Funds shall be paid into the treasury without diminution, and money required for expenditure shall be drawn from the treasury and not deducted from receipts which may be in hand

8. Registers of the receipts and expenditure of the Funds shall be maintained in forms 156 and 157 appended. These registers shall be balanced monthly, and extracts from the registers of the receipts and expenditure of the Parao Funds in the Kohat and *cis* Indus and Kalabagh Mines Divisions, and from the register of the receipts and expenditure of the Badge and Uniform Fund maintained by the Assistant Commissioner, Kohat, shall be submitted to the Commissioner at the close of each month, supported by plus and minus memoranda in form 108.

R M DAVE,
Commissioner.

Assistant Commissioner,
N. I. Salt Revenue.

DIVISION.

Plus and Minus Memorandum for the month of 199 .

Detail.	Balance at close of the last month.			Receipts during the month.			Total.			Charges during the month.			Balance at close of the month.			REMARKS.
	Rs.	a	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	
Departmental Funds.	Badge and Uniform Fund					
	Parao Fund					
Total						

CERTIFIED that the balance at the credit of the Assistant Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, Division, at the close of 190 is Rs. ()

Attested.

Dated 190. The 190. Assistant Commissioner, N. I. Salt Revenue.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 33 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following rules, relating to the duties of Assistant Commissioners and of officers engaged in preventive work at the Rajputana Salt Sources and the Sultanpur Salt Works, and in the Kohat and cis-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Divisions, are published for information and guidance. Orders as to the duties and tours of Assistant Commissioners in the Internal Branch are contained in the Rules and orders as to work and procedure in that Branch in Volume I.

General instructions

1. It is the duty of Assistant Commissioners to control and supervise the work of the officers and men subordinate to them, and to direct and instruct them in the performance of their duties. They should check oppressive and unauthorised acts and investigate promptly and, as far as possible locally, all cases in which complaint is made. They should also keep themselves informed of the state of feeling towards the Department of the people of the country in which their subordinates are posted, and should exert themselves to cultivate friendly relations with them.

2. Assistant Commissioners should utilise their diaries as a means of communicating to the Commissioner information of importance connected with the administration of their Divisions which should be brought to his notice. Separate reports must, however, be submitted in all matters with regard to which orders are necessary.

3. Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents posted to Sections and Beats are responsible, subject to the control of Assistant Commissioners, for the work of their subordinates. It is their duty to keep themselves informed of the conduct of the establishment, to instruct them in their work and to enquire into and report to Assistant Commissioners any cases of dereliction of duty or of complaints that may be made.

4. In connection with the supervision of the work of the preventive establishment, Superintendents, Assistant Superintendents and Inspectors are required to move actively about their Sections or Beats, and to make frequent excursions from their headquarters both by day and by night. The day of 24 hours shall be divided into three periods, (1) from daybreak to nightfall, 2) from nightfall to midnight, and (3) from midnight to daybreak. Excursions shall be made within these periods in number sufficient to constitute an efficient check upon the work of the establishment. An excursion commenced during one period and extending into the following one, may be taken credit for in either period at option. Full particulars of all work done shall be recorded from day to day in diaries, forms Nos 159 and 160.

5. Officers are required to ride or walk when on preventive duty, wheeled conveyances should not be used.

6. Sundays should not be invariably observed as days of rest from active duties. An officer may make any day one of abstention from outdoor work, but this should be done at irregular intervals and for not more than two days consecutively.

7. Assistant Commissioners may grant exemption from patrolling to officers who may be temporarily incapacitated for outdoor work by illness or other cause. If an officer requires to be excused from active duty for more than seven days at any one time, he should, as a general rule, apply for leave. Exemption from outdoor work shall not be granted to an officer for more than fifteen days at any one time, nor for more than thirty days during an official year.

8. Officers posted at isolated localities may be permitted to visit their neighbouring brother officers, on the condition that their absence does not interfere with the due and proper performance of urgent work. These visits should not exceed four periods of twelve hours each during a month, or two periods of twenty four hours each, or one period of twenty-four hours and two of twelve hours each. The absence of an officer on such visits may count from the time he leaves his jurisdiction until he returns to it.

9. Unwarrantable violence towards persons concerned in the theft of salt must be refrained from. Any member of the establishment who uses violence to such persons, except in self-defence, will be dealt with according to law.

In the Kohat Mines Division, smugglers may not be fired upon at night, and fire-arms should not be used except in self-defence, in Beats other than those of Bahadur Khel, Karrak, and those portions of the Nari and Jatta Beats which are near the border. In the above Beats and portions of Beats, thefts of salt are frequently committed by armed men from beyond the border, and when the salt is attacked, there is reasonable ground for believing that the thieves are prepared to use arms to effect their purpose. (Section 38 of the Frontier Crimes Regulation III of 1901.)

A Statement of seizures effected in each Division shall be submitted monthly in the form prescribed by Rule 88 of the Internal Branch Rules.

The Rajputana Salt Sources and the Sultanpur Salt Works.

10. Officers posted to Weighment Sections at the Sambhar Lake, should visit the whole of their Sections of the Lake shore from time to time both by day and by night. During visits by day, the Lake edge should be carefully inspected in order to ascertain that deposits of salt have not been tampered with, particular attention being paid to the efficient guarding of places where the greatest danger exists.

11. Visits by night should be for the purpose of ascertaining whether the subordinate establishment is on the alert, and should be made at irregular intervals and be thorough and effective. Petty officers cannot be expected to keep their men vigilant unless supported by the example of their superior officers. In supervising the watch and ward of a Section in this way, distant parts of it need to be as closely looked after, if not more closely, than places more easily accessible from an officer's head-quarters.

12. A scale fixing the minimum number of excursions to be made by day and by night is not laid down, for the reason that the extent of the danger of theft of salt varies with the seasons, and it is desired that officers should exercise intelligence and forethought in the supervision of their charges. It must, however, be clearly understood that officers will be held strictly responsible for the safety of the salt within their sections. On the occurrence of thefts of salt, the diaries of officers who

are responsible will be closely scrutinised, in order to ascertain whether efficient supervision has been exercised or not.

13 The Assistant Commissioner must carefully review the diaries of each officer. Nominal excursions, made for the purpose of filling up a diary, should not be permitted, and steady and efficient work should be required. Should any officer fail to exercise effective supervision over his charge and disregard the warnings of the Assistant Commissioner, the case should be brought to the notice of the Commissioner.

14 These rules apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to preventive work at Pachbadra, Didwana and the Sultanpur Salt Works

Cis-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Division

15 The Assistant Commissioner should visit and inspect every Beat of the Division at least once a year, and more frequently should occasion require it. During these tours he should acquaint himself with (1) the general state of each Beat, (2) the knowledge of the establishment in respect of their duties, (3) the progress of the trade in salt within the protected area, (4) the condition of out crops and salt beds and of sites where salt lies buried either naturally or artificially and (5) generally with all matters in which the Department is interested.

16 Officers posted to Beats are responsible for the prevention of theft of salt from out crops and salt beds. It is their duty to inspect as frequently as possible, and at least once a month, all salt known to be exposed, all sites where salt has been naturally and artificially buried, the interior of all accessible mines, holes and tunnels, and to examine periodically the gorges and hills within the salt bearing area (even where salt is not known to be exposed) in search of traces of removal of salt, of secret mines and of new exposures of salt. They should also personally supervise the burying of out-crops which can be so made safe, and the destruction of salt efflorescence and of exposed salt where this can be effected.

17 In order to facilitate supervision and to prevent the danger of salt which has been buried naturally or artificially being lost sight of when the Officers in charge of a Beat are changed, a register, in form No 161 appended, of guard posts and out-crops shall be maintained in each Beat. This register shall show for each guard post, the area which the petty officers and peons, who may be there stationed, are expected to guard and examine, the position within that area of all salt exposed, or known to exist near the surface whether such salt has been naturally or artificially buried, and the position of all natural or artificial mines or shafts in which salt is exposed or is likely to be exposed by the action of water or other cause. A rough illustrative sketch map of each Beat, indicating the position of guard posts, out-crops, etc., shall also be maintained.

18 Officers should visit the guard posts in their Beats unexpectedly and at all hours, and closely supervise the work of their subordinates. In each month not less than eighteen excursions should be made during daylight and four each of the other periods prescribed by Rule 4.

19. Villages within the protected area should be visited from time to time, and information obtained as to whether duty paid salt is or is not being consumed within them. Officers should endeavour to be on friendly terms with the people of the country, and visits to villages should be made in such a way as to be conducive to that end.

Kohat Mines Division.

20. Close personal supervision of the work of the preventive establishment is a most important part of the duties of the Assistant Commissioner. In addition to spending fifteen days of each month in visiting the different Beats during other periods of the year, the Assistant Commissioner must spend at least three out of the six cold weather months on tour marching about the Division, inspecting out-crops, and examining the gorges and hills in the salt region looking personally into questions connected with the establishment and their work, and settling on the spot any difficulties that may have arisen with the Inamkhurs.

21. The orders contained in Rules 16, 17 and 18 preceding are also applicable to preventive officers and beats in the Kohat Mines Division. It is the duty of the Assistant Commissioner to see that those orders are obeyed, to examine closely the work of his subordinates, and to direct them in their duties so that these may be efficiently performed.

22. The greater part of the patrolling in this Division will be performed by the Beat Inspectors, but a fair proportion of the visits by day and night to guard posts under Rule 18 should be made in each month by the Superintendents or Assistant Superintendents in charge of the Bahadur Khel, Jatta and Malgin Depôts.

23. Though there is no protected area in the Division, officers should nevertheless visit villages in the salt region as required by Rule 19, in order to ascertain, so far as may be possible, whether duty paid salt is being consumed, and to cultivate friendly relations with the people.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

Abstract of inspections of guard-posts, etc., for

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	
Number of guard posts ...																																				
Distance from Headquarter																																				
1st period ...																																				
2nd period ...																																				
3rd period ...																																				
Total ...																																				

Out-crops inspected or Pickets visited.

1st period ...																																				
2nd period ...																																				
3rd period ...																																				
Total ...																																				

NOTE.—Chaukis guarding salt out-crops are to be shown in red ink.

Farodi Inspection for _____

Name of Officer.	Number of villages containing Farodis.	Number of shops.	Number of villages visited.	Number of accounts inspected.

Detail of Farodi Inspections during the week.

Name of village.	Name of Farodi.	Result and action taken.

Explanation regarding Farodis not visited for three months to be given with last diary for the month.

FORM No. 161.

*Register of guard posts and salt out-crops and deposits of**the _____ Beat in the _____ Division.*

No. and name of guard post.	Area to be examined and guarded by the establishment of the guard post, and the boundaries of that area.	Position, in respect of the guard post, of each deposit of salt exposed or buried naturally or artificially or known to exist near the surface, and of each mine, hole or shaft natural or artificial in which salt is exposed or is likely to be exposed within the area shown in column 2.	Quality of the salt in each deposit as far as is known.	Remarks, describing each deposit, that is, whether exposed or buried artificially or naturally, or not yet exposed but likely to become exposed by the action of water or other cause, or so situate near the surface that there is fear of smugglers exposing and removing salt from it, or if a mine hole, or shaft, the distance the salt, if any, is from the surface, etc., etc.

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 34 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following orders regarding the safe custody of money in the Departmental cash chests are published for information and guidance:—

To secure the safety of the contents of Departmental cash chests, the Commissioner directs that each chest shall be secured by two good locks. The key of one lock shall be kept by the officer who is responsible for the chest and the other by a subordinate of not lower rank than Vernacular Clerk, and these keys shall not remain out of their possession at any time. The duplicate keys (if any) of the locks shall be kept in strong envelopes securely sealed, and shall be deposited under lock and key in the office of the officer's immediate superior.

2. The cash chest shall not be opened except in the presence of both officers, and the money in deposit shall be counted and compared with the recorded balance on every occasion on which the chest is opened either to take out or put in money. A cash chest shall remain under guard day and night, and shall be so placed as to be immediately under the care of the men responsible for its safety.

3. All officers are warned that they will be held personally responsible in the event of any loss or defalcation taking place through the neglect of these orders. Any loss or deficiency compared with the recorded balance of Government money must be at once reported to the Commissioner.

R. M. DANE,
Commissioner.

BOOK CIRCULAR No 35 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following orders defining the powers of Assistant Commissioners, Superintendents, Assistant Superintendents and Inspectors over their subordinates, and the following general instructions with regard to the establishment, are published for information

Assistant Commissioners

1 Assistant Commissioners are expected to supervise closely the public conduct of all their subordinates and they should bring to the notice of the Commissioner any cases in which the transfer of superior officers appears advisable

2 Assistant Commissioners are empowered to grant privilege or other leave to all officers in superior service below the rank of Probationary or Officiating Assistant Superintendent for a period not exceeding three months. When substitutes are necessary, they should inform the Commissioner in time to admit of officiating appointments being made from the lists of qualified and approved candidates maintained in the Central Office. The grant of leave to Inspectors and English Clerks should be at once reported in order that notifications may be published in the Departmental gazette

3 They are authorised to grant casual leave up to 10 days at any one time (subject to a maximum of 15 days in the year) to officers of all grades subordinate to them, on the conditions specified in paras 23 and 24. The grant of periods exceeding six days at any one time to an officer in superior service should be reported to the Commissioner for information

4 They are empowered to transfer within their Divisions, Inspectors who are not in receipt of charge allowance and Vernacular clerks. In any case in which they consider that an Inspector stationed at a charge allowance post should be transferred, they should submit a report to the Commissioner

5 Discipline should be maintained among Inspectors and Clerks without the imposition of fines. The forms of punishment that can be resorted to for this purpose are official reprimand, addition to work, stoppage of promotion, entry of misdemeanours in Character Books, reduction in seniority, reduction in grade, suspension, and in the last resort dismissal from the service of Government. Some of these forms of punishment involve a pecuniary penalty and constitute therefore an indirect fine, but they are not direct fines in the common use of the term. Assistant Commissioners should not hesitate to report to the Commissioner any cases in which they find reprimand and addition to work unavailing and further punishment appears to be necessary

6 The power of appointment and promotion of petty officers and men in inferior service and of their transfer within Divisions is vested in Assistant Commissioners. They can grant leave of any description to such officials, and in cases of misconduct may inflict fines up to a limit of five rupees, or may order their reduction in grade,

suspension, or, if necessary, their dismissal or removal from the service of Government.

7. In cases of insubordination and gross misconduct, and when delay resulting from a reference to the Commissioner would be injurious to discipline and the public service, Assistant Commissioners are empowered to suspend any officer in any grade of the superior service subordinate to them; and they should not hesitate to use this power when it appears to them necessary in the interests of the public service. Such suspensions should be immediately reported to the Commissioner.

8. Assistant Commissioners are empowered to institute legal proceedings against any member of the establishment in inferior service who may contravene the Salt Law. Cases of such misconduct on the part of officers in superior service, if any should occur, should be reported by Assistant Commissioners for the orders of the Commissioner.

Superintendents.

9. Superintendents have no powers to make appointments, but they may nominate recruits for the appointment of peon, and may recommend men for promotion to the rank of petty officer and to the different grades in that rank.

10. They may grant casual leave up to a limit of six days at any one time to Vernacular clerks and of ten days to subordinates in inferior service, subject to the conditions prescribed in paras. 23 and 24.

11. They are authorised to grant leave to their subordinates of and below the rank of Kotgasht to the extent of two months' without allowances at any season of the year, and of two months' privilege leave during periods of the year when Assistant Commissioners of Divisions consider that the appointment of substitutes for men on leave is unnecessary.

12. They are empowered to transfer men of and below the rank of Kotgasht within their charges, and to fine any petty officer or peon up to a limit of two rupees for any one offence. In cases of grave misconduct, when prompt action is called for, they are authorised to suspend any subordinate for whose conduct they are responsible, pending the orders of the Assistant Commissioner of the Division, to whom a report should be at once submitted.

13. In all matters connected with the establishment, Superintendents are under the control of Assistant Commissioners of Divisions. If in any case, an Assistant Commissioner is of opinion that the powers of a Superintendent should be curtailed or withdrawn, a report should be submitted to the Commissioner.

Assistant Superintendents and Inspectors in independent charge.

14. Assistant Superintendents, including Probationary and Officiating Officers of that rank, and Inspectors, who are in independent charge of Sections, Beats or Circles, have the same powers in the matters of leave and punishment as Superintendents and exercise their powers under the same conditions. The Inspectors at the Mandi Mines and at Sultanpur and Zahidpur at the Sultanpur Salt Works, Inspectors in charge

of preventive subordinate Beats in the Kohat and *cis*-Indus and Kalabagh Mines Divisions and the Inspector at the Luni, are not to be considered to be in independent charge for the purpose of this paragraph

Inspectors

15 Inspectors are empowered to grant casual leave to peons immediately subordinate to them up to a limit of six days at any one time and to fine such men up to a limit of one rupee for any one offence. In all cases, the papers connected with the grant of leave or the infliction of fine shall be submitted without delay to an Inspector's immediate superior for confirmation

16 Assistant Commissioners are authorised to withdraw the powers conferred on Inspectors by the preceding paragraph in any case in which it is found that they are being abused or exercised injudiciously. A report should be submitted to the Commissioner when the powers of an Inspector are withdrawn under the discretion thus given

Appeals

17 All punishments shall be subject to appeal by the persons who have been punished, in the first instance to the Assistant Commissioner of the Division if the punishment has been inflicted or confirmed by a Superintendent or Assistant Superintendent, and finally to the Commissioner.

General instructions.

18 The attention of all officers is directed to Article 68 of the Civil Service Regulations, which provides that persons whose age exceeds 25 years may not ordinarily be admitted to the service of Government. No person whose age exceeds that limit may be appointed to the Department except under the special sanction of the Commissioner

19 Recruits should be of good character, in sound health, and of good physique and intelligence. It is the duty of Assistant Commissioners of Divisions to inspect men nominated for the appointment of peon, and to assure themselves that they are fit for the appointments for which they are candidates

20 The residence and character of recruits shall be verified by reference to the Chief Revenue Officers of the districts to which the men have declared that they are resident. Applications for such verification to District Officers shall be made by English letter, accompanied by a vernacular tabulated statement in the following form — (1) Name of recruit; (2) Father's name; (3) Caste, (4) Place of residence, village, taluk or parganah, district and province, (5) Heirs, (6) Names of headmen or others referred to for attestation; (7) Remarks of district authorities as to verification of residence and of good character. When a recruit has been in service in any other Department and has not a service roll, reference should be made to that Department instead of to the District Officer, unless the man has been living for a lengthened period at his home.

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7. In cases of insubordination and gross misconduct, and when delay resulting from a reference to the Commissioner would be injurious to discipline and the public service, Assistant Commissioners are empowered to suspend any officer in any grade of the superior service subordinate to them; and they should not hesitate to use this power when it appears to them necessary in the interests of the public service. Such suspensions should be immediately reported to the Commissioner.

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21. Care should be taken to select properly qualified men for promotion to the rank of petty officer. The peons selected should be intelligent and of good character, and, so far as may be possible, men able to read and write should be chosen for such appointments.

22. The grant of casual leave is only justifiable in cases of real necessity and emergency. It should not be given as a matter of course so as to become simply a means of obtaining absence from duty in addition to privilege and other leave. The casual leave which may be granted to any member of the establishment during an official year is limited to fifteen days.

23. An officer who has been granted casual leave must make over charge of his duties, and reassume charge of them on return, at his head-quarters. Casual leave will count from the time of leaving head-quarters, and holidays and Sundays shall not be utilised to anticipate or extend such leave.

24. All applications for leave must be in writing and orders passed on them must also be written.

25. Hospital leave to subordinates under Article 321 of the Civil Service Regulations is an interruption of duty. Such leave may be given in cases of necessity in addition to privilege or other leave admissible, but a subordinate taking it forfeits any privilege leave he may have earned. A subordinate whose pay does not exceed Rs. 20 and to whom privilege is due should, if he is unfortunate enough to fall sick, be given privilege leave in the first instance and not hospital leave. If the privilege leave due be insufficient, hospital leave may be granted in continuation. All periods of hospital leave should be recorded in service books and rolls.

26. When any official of and below the rank of Inspector or Clerk is suspended as a punishment, he will be required to remain throughout the period of his suspension at the head-quarters of the officer to whom he is subordinate. Disobedience of this order will render such an official liable to the penalty of unauthorised absence.

27. No member of the establishment in inferior service should ordinarily be removed from his appointment for overstaying leave unless his unauthorised absence has exceeded one month. If he rejoins within that time he should ordinarily be reinstated.

28. No official of the Department, who may have been convicted and punished by a Criminal Court, shall be reinstated in his appointment except with the special sanction of the Commissioner, to whom all such cases of conviction and punishment must be at once reported.

29. A verbal order by a superior to a subordinate to do anything which is directly contrary to rule will not be held to justify the carrying out of such an order. Subordinates are, however, warned against making this a pretext for disobeying the orders of their superiors on the score of such being improper. If a subordinate refuses to obey a verbal order, the officer who has given it will put it into writing and report the fact of the refusal and the circumstances of the case to his immediate

superior, and should it be established that the order was not an improper one and was within the authority of the officer issuing it, the subordinate who refused to carry it out will be liable to punishment.

30 Subordinates in inferior service stationed at permanent guard posts may be allowed to keep their families with them on the following conditions (1) each man must provide a separate hut at his own expense close to the guard post and must keep the premises clean, (2) no man will be allowed to keep his wife or family anywhere but near his guard post, (3) before bringing a woman to live with him, a man must give in a written application stating that the woman is his wife and asking permission for her to reside with him at his guard post Residence of prostitutes must not be allowed, and any woman who leaves her husband to live with another man will disqualify herself for local residence

31 With regard to personal services which may be accepted from peons posted as orderlies with officers, it should be clearly understood that such services must not so encroach on the time of a subordinate as to incapacitate him for his Departmental duties Such offices as the conveyance of notes and messages, attendance on an officer during a shooting excursion carrying and taking care of his guns while so engaged carrying light parcels which do not turn the bearer into a coolie and which contain nothing which militates against his religious prejudices, attendance on the children of a superior during their morning and evening prayers, are willingly rendered to an officer who is respected, and to these there is no objection

32 Striking or other maltreatment of subordinates is strictly forbidden Assistant Commissioners are required to bring any such cases that may occur in their Divisions immediately to the notice of the Commissioner

33 The grant of certificates of good conduct by officers of the Department to their subordinates is forbidden Conduct deserving of commendation should be brought to the notice of the Assistant Commissioner in charge of the Division

34 Officers are prohibited from taking any of their subordinates with them, when they are transferred from one place to another.

35 Clerks or other officials of the Department are forbidden to write petitions or other papers relating to Departmental matters for salt traders or others, either gratuitously or in consideration of receiving a fee

R M DANE,
Commissioner.

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 36 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The following orders regarding leave and the exchange of daily travelling allowance for mileage are published for information and guidance:—

1. When an officer applies for leave, he should name the date from which he wishes to take it, and he must either go on leave on that date or obtain sanction to any change in the date which he may desire to make.

2. The relinquishment and assumption of charge of an office should be reported on the day on which the occurrence takes place. Assistant Commissioners should report all such changes punctually to the Central Office in order that they may be notified in the Departmental Gazette.

3. In the case of an office holding a permanent advance, an acknowledgment of the full amount of the advance by the officer assuming charge must be submitted to the Commissioner. In all cases of transfer of charge, a relieving officer must report the amount of cash (if any) which he has received and whether it agrees with the recorded balance in the books of the office.

4. An officer on leave in India, wishing to rejoin his appointment before the expiry of his leave, must apply for permission to do so, and, in the case of sick leave, must submit with the application a medical certificate showing that he is fit to return to duty. An officer on leave in India or in any place out of Europe taken on account of ill-health, whether the leave be technically leave on medical certificate or not, may also be required at the discretion of the Commissioner to produce, before he is permitted to return to duty, a medical certificate, by such medical officer as may be directed, showing his fitness to return to duty.

5. The first note under section 1170 of the Civil Service Regulations, which relates to actual travelling expenses does not apply to Superintendents, Assistant Superintendents and Inspectors, as they are not "ministerial officers."

Sanction of Commissioner to be sought for permission to exchange daily allowances for mileage rates.

All applications from these officers for permission to draw mileage rates of travelling allowance in lieu of daily allowances should, however, be submitted to the Commissioner for orders. It will not be necessary to enter into the question of actual expenses, but it must be clearly shown that the journey for which it is sought to draw travelling allowance according to the mileage rate, was really necessary in the interests of the public service, and it is only when this is established to the satisfaction of the Commissioner that the mileage rate will be sanctioned. Officers in charge of Circles in the Internal Branch should at once report the circumstances to the Assistant Commissioner of the Division in any case in which they may authorise a journey involving a charge for travelling allowance at the mileage rate for an Inspector.

R. M. DANE,

Commissioner.

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 37 OF 1902

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902.

The levy or collection by any officer of contributions or subscriptions from other officers or from men in the Department to meet expenditure of a public or professedly public nature, however desirable such expenditure may appear, is irregular. No form of collection or "Chandah" for any such purpose may, on any pretext whatever, be organised unless the special sanction of the Commissioner has been previously obtained.

R. M. DANE,

Commissioner.

BOOK CIRCULAR No. 38 OF 1902.

Dated Agra, the 3rd January 1902

The following is the scale of camp equipment sanctioned for Assistant Commissioners by the Government of India,* and for Superintendents and officers of lower rank by the Commissioner —

Assistant Commissioners in the Internal Branch, the Kohat and cis Indus Mines Divisions, and at Sambhar and Pachbadra.

	Dimensions.	Approximate cost.
Two Swiss cottage tents	.. 14' x 14'	at Rs 440 0 0 each
Two necessary tents	.. 4' x 4'	„ 30 0 0 „
One <i>multum in parvo</i> tent	10' x 10'	„ 115 0 0
Three servants' pāls	... 12' x 12'	„ 60 0 0 each
Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents in the Internal Branch and on deputation.		

	Dimensions.	Approximate cost.
One Swiss cottage tent	... 14' x 14'	at Rs 440 0 0
One necessary tent	... 4' x 4'	„ 30 0 0
One <i>multum in parvo</i> tent	... 10' x 10'	„ 115 0 0
Two servants' pāls	.. 12' x 12'	„ 60 0 0 each.
Inspector in charge of a Circle.		

	Dimensions.	Approximate cost.
One <i>multum in parvo</i> tent, and	... 10' x 10'	at Rs. 115 0 0
two servants' pāls	... 12' x 12'	„ 60 0 0 each.
Inspectors on deputation and the Inspector at the Lunj		

	Dimensions	Approximate cost.
One <i>multum in parvo</i> tent	... 8' x 8'	at Rs. 90 0 0

* Letter from the Finance Department, No 79 Ex, dated 9th January 1902.